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From the Editor ...

During the past few years, "Mother Nature" wreaked havoc in all parts of the world. With twenty-four-hour television coverage, non-stop radio broadcasting, and streaming video, the media brought us closer to the scene of disasters than ever before. We saw a tsunami obliterate villages and people in its path; we watched raging wildfires devastate palatial forests; and we witnessed unforgiving floods destroy political, historical, and cultural life. Live footage gave us a "coliseum view" of devastating destruction, inconceivable suffering, and unbelievable heroism.

Although we are stunned to see such images, most of the time, we simply see them as terrible things that happen in relatively isolated regions or other parts of the world – all somewhat removed from our safe havens. But as a nation, we were truly shocked by what we saw when the waters churned and moved, creeping, slowly but surely, into our nation's historic southern provinces. New Orleans and its boroughs, along with countless towns and villages in Mississippi, succumbed to the ruthless force of water, and even the seemingly impenetrable Super Dome fell victim to its power. While we watched the levees break, some of us may have been bewildered that so many people chose to remain where they were. Then, some of us soon learned an appalling fact about our southern provinces – poverty is not only alive and well, but also thriving. It is both sad and deplorable that such a condition continues to exist in the richest country in the world. Nonetheless, it clearly explains why people elected to stay – some had no cars, others had nowhere to go, some had to choose between fuel and food, others had to choose between the place called "home" and no home at all. Those who stayed behind were the poor – they had no money and they had no resources.

Months have gone by since the waters receded. Rubble still fills the streets and alleys, electrical power is still out in neighborhoods, consumer services are still unavailable, and homes are still uninhabitable. For thousands and thousands of people, there no longer is a place to call "home." Some have been fortunate to rest their weary bones in trailers provided by the assistance effort, while others have moved into crowded quarters with relatives. Some have created temporary housing from sheets of aluminum, cardboard, and plywood scraps, while others have relocated to other states, pledging never to come back. However, here and there, pockets of individual industry are beginning to bubble, as residents, tired of waiting for external help, have doggedly begun to work on gutting their own homes, rebuilding with their own funds. Here and there, meager as it may be, hope is on the rise.

Millions of Americans donated money to the relief effort and the federal government promised assistance – where have all the flowers (funds) gone? In the months to come, we hope to see a concerted effort on the part of the government (state, local, and federal) to restore New Orleans to its majestic beauty and charm, to rejuvenate its cultural vitality, and to enhance living standards for its diverse citizens. We hope to see this concerted effort also extended to the neighboring Mississippi regions that bore the scars of this catastrophe. The poor suffer, regardless as to location. And, if we are not our brothers' keepers, who is?

It is the poor that suffered the most lethal blow dealt by Katrina, the "Storm of the Century." It is the poor that need our help – immediately – not several years from now. If we wait that long, it is doubtful that New Orleans and its historic parishes will ever be rebuilt. But most importantly, it is the children of the poor that will not stand a chance of success if assistance is not provided as soon as possible. Their poverty-stricken lives as babies and infants will affect their growth and development as adolescents. This deprivation will, no doubt, also affect their progress as they mature into adulthood. If their schools are never rebuilt, how and where will they learn? If their homes are never rebuilt, where will they study and how will they attain familial support? If the playgrounds and parks are never rebuilt, where and how will they learn cooperation and teamwork? If cultural, political, and historic centers are not rebuilt, where and how will they learn about themselves, their heritage, their nation, and the world? This issue of *Eastern Education Journal* is dedicated to the people, places, accomplishments, ideas, and the children – all forever changed by the force and destruction of Hurricane Katrina.

Veronica P. Styles

In This Issue ...

The Spring 2006 issue of Eastern Education Journal is packed with new ideas, new approaches, and new perspectives that deal with educational issues. First, the *Special Feature*, co-authored by David Carey and Judith Barford, describes an innovative school-university partnership in which beginning teacher education students are paired with teachers in a professional development school for a four-year period. Second, the *Guest Editorial* by Richard NeSmith explores the world of the middle school and offers suggestions for improving student success, both inside and outside the classroom.

The *Research* section begins with "Harnessing the Call to Teach and Lead in Schools: What Future Teachers and Administrators are Telling Us" by Janis Fine and Jeffrey Winter. The article examines factors that compel people to become schoolteachers and leaders and proposes ways that faculty can support and enhance the personal journeys of teacher and leader candidates. The following article by Kristina Alexander investigates the topic of school leadership preparation and presents an alternative to traditional programs in "Authentic Leadership: A New Approach."

The question of creating a large scale professional development school program or to expand a small existing PDS program is addressed by Paul Bland and Steve Neill in "The Challenges of Full Secondary Education Professional Development School Programs: One Alternative." The authors provide an overview of a field-based approach that maintains a true PDS philosophy. The next article by Nancy Gaylen, Brenda Boudreau, Tami Eggleston, Nancy Bragg, Patti Powell, and Victoria Groves Scott presents results of five different service learning research projects. "Addressing Contemporary Issues Through Collaborative Methods" details a project involving school, organization, and community partnerships designed to promote faculty development by integrating traditional roles of teaching, scholarship, and service.

Next, "Academic and Non-academic Predictors of College Student Retention" by Samantha White, Elizabeth Kirby, and Mara Arugete utilizes collected data such as high school grade point average, standardized test scores, socio-economic status and number of low-risk college courses completed to ascertain predictors of retention. The following article – "External Assets and the Development of Resiliency Among Urban American High School Students" -- by Teresa Wasonga and Phillip Messner evaluates measures of external assets and the subsequent development of resiliency and offers implications for policy.

"College Students' Perceptions of Faculty's Teaching Ability Based on Their Ethnicity, Accent, and Academic Discipline" by Lea Lee and Louis Janda discusses college students' perceptions of professors' teaching competence and effectiveness based on the professors' ethnicity (European-American, African-American, and Asian-American), the presence of an accent during lectures, and academic discipline. Solomon Abebe and Joan Kitterman investigate specific teaching events which student teachers in urban, suburban and rural areas found stressful and present recommendations to reduce stress in student teaching in "Student Teaching and Stress."

The *Features* section includes a selection of research on special interest topics. It begins with "Why Critical Thinking?" by Kiran Padmaraju. The author probes the issue of critical thinking and argues for the need to promote critical thinking activities from kindergarten classrooms through college and university settings. Jill Rennels next looks at ways that education impacts domestic violence in "Don't Turn the Other Cheek: Power and Control of Domestic Violence Education." The article examines feminist and ecological perspectives and offers suggestions for domestic violence in-service education.

The following article – "Portable vs. Permanent Classrooms: A Quasi-experimental Study of Fifth Graders' Attitude and Mathematics Achievement" – explores the dynamics of portable versus permanent classrooms of an elementary school in terms of student attitude and mathematics achievement.

Next, Scott Fredrickson, Ken Nelson, Robert Walden, and Patricia Hoehner in "Twenty-First Century 'Catch 22' – Instructor Comments in Asynchronous Web-Based Courses" investigate web-based class environments to determine the correlation between instructor postings in discussion forums and student postings in those forums.

Read and enjoy. As always, we look forward to receiving your research-based manuscripts, commentaries, book reviews, program descriptions, and original points of view.

What sculpture is to a block of marble, education is to a human soul.

– Joseph Addison

School-based Cohort Immersion Program: An overview and areas of planned inquiry

David Carey and Judith A. Barford

David Carey is the principal of Carl Sandburg Elementary School in Charleston, IL. Carl Sandburg is a primary center serving 550 first through third grade students. He is completing his 33rd year in education.

Judith A. Barford is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Early Childhood, Elementary, and Middle Level Education at Eastern Illinois University. She teaches courses in educational technology and social studies methodology. She taught all elementary grades K-5 before joining the EIU faculty in 1993. Her practice is informed by commitment to professional development school ideals and to the thesis that teachers and children in schools are primary partners in teacher education.

Abstract
School-based Cohort Immersion Program: Rationale and outline for inquiry in progress

As professional development schools become essential environments for best practice in teacher education and partnership opportunities offer multiple benefits for multiple stakeholders, we in the Department of Early Childhood, Elementary, and Middle Level Education at Eastern Illinois University and Community Unit School District #1, Charleston, IL, wished to revise and renew traditional university/school roles in teacher education for our local setting. The rationale, context, and outline for the School-based Cohort Immersion Program, SCIP, a pilot partnership project, 2002-2006, follows.

Introduction: State of the Profession

As the context of teaching has changed significantly over the last twenty years, the ability level of the teaching force has become a topic of interest to the nation. The new school demographics, including an increase in the number of students with physical, social and academic challenges, and a more linguistically and ethnically diverse population, have developed the need for a teaching cadre able to accommodate a broader range of individual differences and able to insure a successful learning experience for all students. The raised expectations and accountability requirements of *No Child Left Behind* have put the entire education world on notice. In addition the nation is facing a teacher shortage of crippling proportions - 2 million new teachers will be needed during the current decade. There is a growing demand to upgrade the quality of the teacher education programs in the nation as a means to improve student achievement (American Council on Education ACE, 1999). Researchers believe that sound teaching requires exemplary preparation (Clarke et al., 1997) and that teacher preparation is an inseparable part of school reform (National Commission on Teaching and America's Future, 1996). Teachers must now be prepared to take a more active role in the development and implementation of educational policies (Holmes Group, 1995), as leaders, researchers, writers and developers of curriculum (Carusso, 1993). A new trend in teacher preparation is focused on the importance of teachers working and learning together within a learning community. Application of these challenges, concepts and strategies, becomes the mandate of teacher education programs. The purpose of this paper is to report a local response to these issues, trends and mandates.

A major purpose of Eastern Illinois University today, and one of the reasons for its founding in 1899, is the preparation of teachers for the state of Illinois. As stated in an article written for the centennial of the university,

> The one-hundredth anniversary of Old Main's completion and the beginning of classes at the Eastern Illinois Normal School, were marked in September of 1999. Normal schools prepared students intellectually and socially for teaching in township schools and city school districts. They embraced a core set of values regarding useful and practical learning, and promoted a democratic culture and a populist vision of teacher training (*Localites/Localities*, 2000).

Eastern graduates about 600 certified teachers each year. Approximately one third of the enrollment of 12,000 students are teacher certification candidates, preK-12.

Though colleges of education are sending new teachers into the field, attrition rates in the ranks of beginning teachers are alarming. The American Federation of Teachers reports that 1/3 of new teachers leave the profession after only three years on the job and ½ of new teachers have left after five years. In order to retain qualified teachers in the profession, 28 states have mandated induction programs, which emphasize the use of veteran teachers to enhance the skills of the novice. In order to assist pre-service teachers in becoming a part of a learning community and provide them with an immersion experience, the School-based Cohort Immersion Program has been developed.

SCIP: Design for a local response

The School-based Cohort Immersion Program or SCIP, is a partnership project between EIU and

community Unit School District #1. A cohort group of teacher education majors, public school teachers and administrators, and university education faculty has cbeen established with the ultimate aim of providing a cohesive and supportive professional community throughout the four years of the undergraduate degree and certification program. Essential goals of the program are:

1. to increase elementary classroom time prior to the final student teaching semester, from 120 to 300 plus hours;
2. to create new modes of communication;
3. to share and apply growing technology resources;
4. to build community and familiarity within the cohort group to enable purposeful placements of students for clinical experiences.

The problem of teacher attrition begins long before the first year of teaching. The teacher preparation program must assume some responsibility for the success of the beginning teacher. SCIP is a model teacher education program for those who will meet the challenges of America's classrooms and the needs of diverse children. The School-based Cohort Immersion Program places teacher education majors in articulated semester-long experiences alongside diverse veteran teachers who, daily, model multiple strategies for success.

As the name implies the program is based upon the assumption that in training a pre-service teacher must be immersed in actual elementary classrooms under the careful supervision of quality mentoring teachers and university supervisors in order to gain the critical knowledge, skills and dispositions of professional competence. The design of the SCIP program reflects its purpose: to develop skills and deepen the ideals of teacher education candidates from entrance to the university through graduation within a community of professionals dedicated to their success as teachers.

Program personnel for SCIP come from Eastern Illinois University, the College of Education and Professional Studies, and three local attendance centers, all within a one mile radius of EIU. All schools serve the total population of children at these grade levels: Mark Twain School, a kindergarten attendance center; Carl Sandburg School, a primary center serving first through third grade students, and Jefferson Elementary School, serving fourth through sixth graders.

SCIP students invited to participate in the program were incoming freshman who were designated by the university as Education Scholars. According to the university definition Education Scholars are incoming freshman who have demonstrated excellent scholarship and have declared interest in becoming teachers, have high motivation and robust personal achievements.

Classroom teachers were invited to participate in the program based on having had recognized professional success, past experience with EIU clinical participants, and an interest and enthusiasm for the SCIP model. University instructors were encouraged to participate based on their past experience supervising clinical experiences, their interest and enthusiasm for the SCIP model and their willingness to transform university coursework to school-based experiences.

Cohort classrooms, teachers, and university instructors were open to working with the cohort preservice teachers throughout the four years of their undergraduate program and especially during the five intensive semesters outlined below. During these semesters, the pre-service teachers team with a different teacher at a different grade level with different subject area emphasis, experiencing multiple strategies for success. Regular meetings of the cohort enable continuing reflection and creative planning. Technology tools for communication, documentation, reflection, and presentation, and support of classroom curriculum are incorporated throughout the SCIP program.

The Freshman Year:
Joining Classroom Communities

During the first semester, seminars and school visits were designed as an introduction to the program. Each of the schools invited the SCIP students to the building. The principal conducted a tour and a short video welcome by the teachers was presented. During the second semester and first spring semester, the SCIP students were paired with a mentoring teacher and were (required to spend - delete) spent two hours per week in the classroom for 15 weeks. The first year the students spent a total of 30 hours in the classroom and earned approximately 32 hours of academic credit.

The Sophomore Year:
Transition from Student to Teacher

The second year of the program was a transition year for the SCIP students as they transitioned from student to teacher. The fall semester of year two involved academic coursework, while the spring semester involved enrollment in ELE 2000, a block course, which was team taught in the elementary buildings, and included 30 hours of classroom participation and 10 hours of technology participation. The total school-based participation hours in year two amounted to 50 hours and included approximately 32 hours of academic credit.

The Junior Year:
Understanding Professional Practice

During the first semester of year three, 2004-2005, the SCIP students pursued academic coursework and spent 10+ hours of volunteer work in the schools. During the second semester, the students were enrolled in the ELE3000 block consisting of 3 courses, which were partially taught in the elementary buildings and included two full days per week of participation in the classroom. The total school-based par-

ticipation during year three was approximately 150 hours and included 32 hours of academic work.

Year Four:
Advanced Professional Practice

During the fall semester of year four the students were enrolled in the ELE 4000 block, consisting of 4 courses, which were partially taught in the elementary buildings and included two full days per week of classroom participation. During the second semester of year four the SCIP students will have the opportunity to student teach in a SCIP classroom. Total participation hours during year four will be 150 hours and include 33 hours of academic work. The SCIP program can total 390 hours with approximately 130 hours of academic credit. This fulfills all state requirements for beginning certification and all university requirements for the liberal arts core, the area of concentration, and the education major field.

Establishing Program Efficacy

In order to determine the efficacy of the program and to establish, through data, the perspective of the stakeholders involved in the program, an evaluation of the program needs to be established. Providing substantive evidence that a more focused and responsive approach to pre-service teacher education, like the SCIP program, would provide schools with new elementary teachers who are more likely to succeed in the classroom than their traditionally prepared counterparts, is critical if teacher education programs are to become more viable. Before beginning an evaluation of the SCIP program the political context and history of the relationship of the stakeholders needs to be considered.

The partnership between the school district and the university has fluctuated often during the past decade. Before 1995 practicum placements of preservice teachers in community classrooms were made with very little guidance from the administration. Public school classroom teachers were contacted directly by university instructors bypassing the building principals. Placements were made solely on convenience and, occasionally, with a pressing deadline squarely in the rearview mirror. Little thought was given to the quality of the teacher providing mentoring nor the quality of the experience the prospective teacher was receiving. The building principals were unconcerned and looked at this practice as routine and without need of oversight or any form of guidance. Occasionally classroom teachers would bring complaints to the administration and these complaints were handled on a case-by-case basis. In 1995 the Dean of the College of Education, the head of the department and several faculty members brought a proposal to the local school district and, specifically, to the council of administrators. A professional development school partnership was proposed based on the Holmes Group guidelines (HolmesGroup, 1995). These guidelines included establishing a contractual relationship between the university and each school hosting practicum students. Also included in the guidelines were standards for selecting teachers to host students and procedures for assigning students to the host teachers. The administrative staff supported these guidelines and was asked to share them with each prospective school building. The teachers were asked to vote to accept or reject the guidelines and contractual nature of the partnership. Some schools were reluctant to enter in to a contract with the university and others were eager for the improved professionalism that the guidelines would bring to the partnership (Carey, 2003).

Providing leadership in a school whose faculty chose to participate in the partnership and move towards becoming a professional development school provided many challenges and eventually led to the development of the SCIP program. Field-based experiences, the critical component of teacher education programs, are often viewed by preservice teachers as the most important part of their preparation (Houston, 1990). The importance of the practicum experience is in the opportunity it provides for the prospective teacher to create a mental bridge between the theory that is learned in class and the experience of refining and defining teaching skills. Experiences, which should be included in the field placement, include excellent supervision and the opportunity to engage in reflection about teaching and student learning. (Holmes Group, 1986). An effective traditional training experience is hindered by the limited amount of time the student is actually in an elementary classroom before student teaching; inadequate time for effective communication between the university faculty and the public school cooperating teachers; poor access to and inadequate training in the use of the technology with which the public schools are equipped; and the perception of not belonging to the learning community due to haphazard and untimely placements within the public school setting (McAllister & Neubert, 1998). As a result of these issues, alternatives to the traditional practicum experience are needed in order to find ways to improve the teacher training process. The School-based Cohort Immersion Program is one alternative to the traditional process of training teachers.

As the program continues the effects of implementing a school-based, cohort immersion program with a group of pre-service teachers will be evaluated. Since 2002, data has been collected in the following categories: student classroom logs, videotaped cohort meetings, individual interviews, participant surveys, student reflections, and end-of-term program surveys The effectiveness of the process, factors to consider, and problems that are encountered and how the process could be better designed will also be reviewed. Initial data review is fertile indeed. In the words of one of the program participants, "...a big part of why I really enjoy the (SCIP) program (is) because you can get to know people and you get really close and work together and I think it's a really cool thing. I think that the more you do that the more that you're going to enjoy the

more you do that the more that you're going to enjoy the course work and (the process of) becoming a teacher. The more you're going to want to learn about special education, and about methods and about all the other courses that we take and the more you're going to want to work together and study it and know what you're doing when you get out there."

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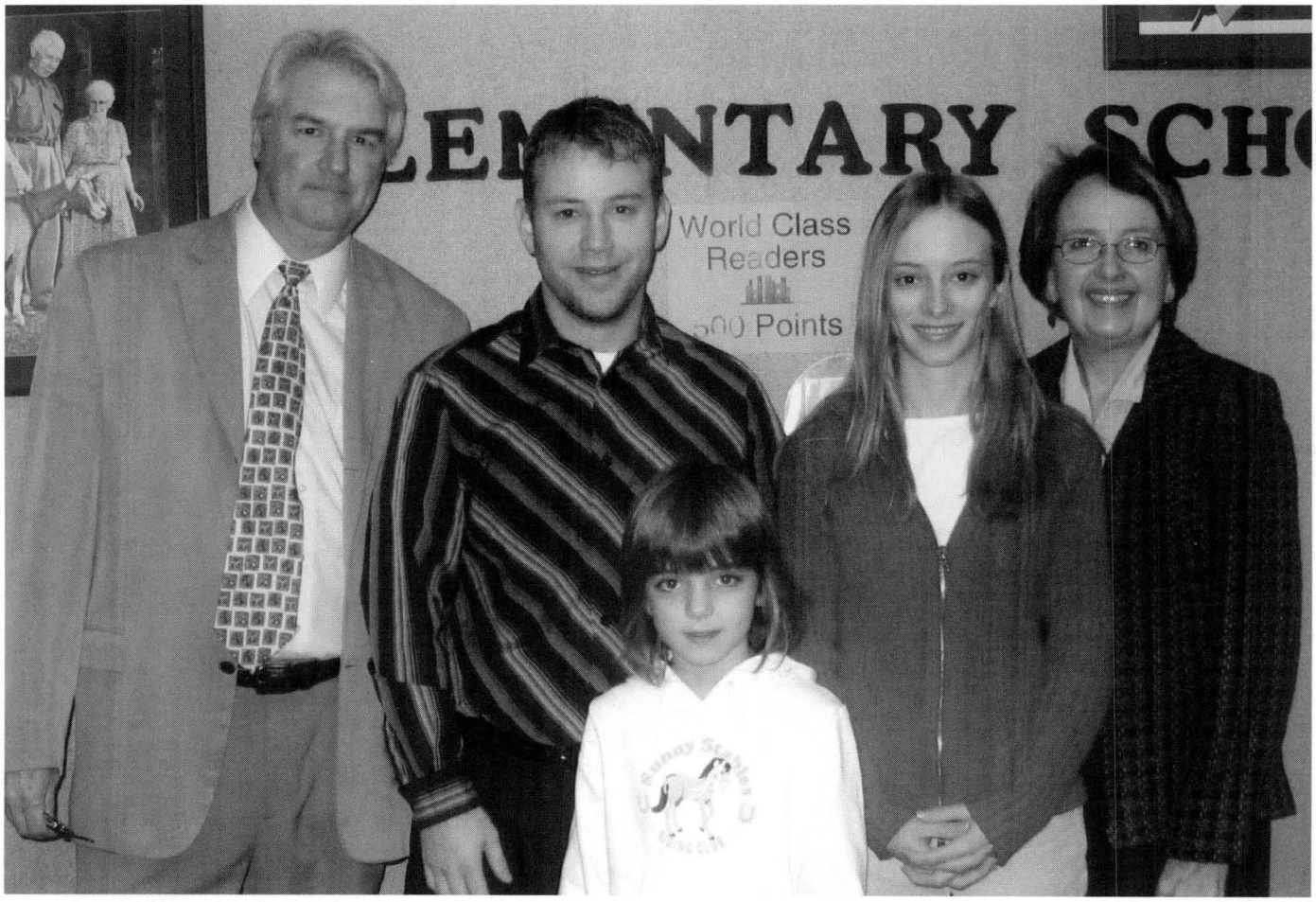
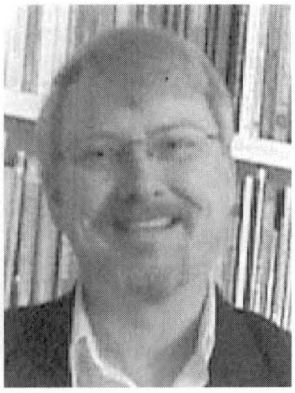


Elizabeth Fueschl, SCIP student teacher, works with two students in Mr. Taylor's class at Carl Sandburg Elementary School during spring semester, 2006.

Middle School Recommendations:

Improving Middle School Student Success Is Vital in 2006

Richard A. NeSmith



Richard A. NeSmith is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Early Childhood, Elementary, and Middle Level Education at Eastern Illinois University. He teaches courses in science methods, educational technology, and middle level philosophy and procedures for certification. He can be reached at BioScience_Ed@yahoo.com.

Recently an article came across my desk that shared how the State of Utah recently constructed a list of proposals they believe to be needed in order to improve the level of education provided to students attending middle schools, namely adolescents from twelve to sixteen years of age. In this report by Erickson (2004), these school leaders met to discuss middle level education and the need for improvement. This was a commendable and courageous act. It could also act as an impetus for more reflection and discussion. The need for such improvement was noted in another report, one by The Center for Public Education (2004), which recently reported a poll administered by the Educational Testing Services in which fewer than fifty percent of Americans say they have much confidence in the nation's schools today. Fifty-eight percent of those polled had some, little, or no confidence in the present system of public education.

It would seem that the public system of education is, and has been, in serious need of change. According to a recent poll (The Center for Public Education, 2004), the public system of education in our country that serves the general public, has received a borderline *no confidence* vote. Change is needed because the educational system inherited from the era of the American Industrial Revolution can no longer successfully support the needs of the average student in the present Age of Information. As I read the article by Erickson (2004), thoughts began to rush through my mind comparing the recommendations made by these experienced district educators with the twelve months of intensive reading that I have done on the topic of improving school achievement. I applaud these Utah educators for taking the initiative to seek change and to be willing to break with the status quo. The intention of this editorial is not to discredit the recommendations of these educators, but to encourage the consideration of "what could be" rather than "what is." Innovations, for the sake of being innovative, are useless; when needed, however, innovations *should be encouraged* by educators, school districts, and individuals schools, alike, and teachers need to practice thinking "outside the box." If education is to continue to improve in our country we must challenge the *status quo*. I have used these recommendations (Erickson, 2004) to frame my own thoughts, concerns, and educational energies as I consider what "could be" in the area of middle school education instead of simple "what is."

✣ Implement teacher, team and department collaboration and provide 90 minutes of planning each school day.

The team approach is one of the major fundamental principles of the middle school movement. It was believed that placing students on teams with several teachers being shared by a group of 80-120 students would provide a friendlier and more personal touch thus helping students moving up from the elementary school to adjust to the changes of middle school. Teaming, however, requires shared planning times. To some educators this means money. More time planning means less students being taught by that teacher or group of teachers. This, however, is not "free time" nor is it nonproductive time. It is essential time when teachers of a team meet together to sort out plans and strategies, interact with parents, and brainstorm solutions to problems they are experiencing with the students on the team. Teachers need not only a shared planning time together with teammates, but a separate individual planning time, as well. Teachers are very dedicated. Some take work home every night and return it every day. A light weekend for many is not having to grade papers on Sunday afternoon.

Reading, planning, and grading are never ending jobs. The misconception that teachers have nothing to do after hours is absurd and only a non-teacher would make such a statement. It is only proper to give teachers ample time to prepare. I assure you *effective* teachers put in far more than 40 hours per week. This is one reason why between one-third and nearly one-half of teachers tend to leave the profession within seven years, with the majority of these being *new* teachers (National Commission, 2003, p. 26; Skandera & Sousa, 2003, pp. 86-87). The National Commission on Teaching and America's Future reported in *No dream denied: A pledge to America's Children* of the alarming rate in which new teachers are leaving, with many "leavers" beginning to outnumber the "movers" (2003, p. 21). Since 1987 this

trend has increased from 150,000 teachers per year leaving the profession to more than 270,000 (Ingresoll, 2000). Teachers see no end, and were it not for the satisfaction of witnessing the occasional student "ah ha," there would be no fulfillment at all. Apart from America not truly recognizing the importance of education (in practice, if not in theory), there is the issue of the *importance* of teachers...who dedicate themselves to a thankless job. We need to recognize that American teachers make up some of the most educated professionals in the entire world. If we truly want well-qualified teachers then we need to train them, nurture them, retain them, and demonstrate our respect for them, especially those who are effective in what they do. Teaming is very useful. It is probably the most important aspect of middle level philosophy. It is one of the most important components that clearly separate the middle school from the junior high school. Teachers with little time to plan are like doctors with little time to keep up with new treatments and medications. They might stay employed but eventually become incompetent, impotent, or both. In high poverty schools the situation is far worse with nearly fifty percent attrition rates within five years of entering the profession (Skandera & Sousa, 2003). These teachers are not quitting because they are not dedicated. They are quitting because they have been *used up*. If we want teachers to be professionals then we must treat them as professionals. If we do not, then we should stop complaining about the quality, or lack thereof, that our students receive. It is the desire of this citizen that our best people become our best teachers.

✣ Have no more than 25 students in a core class.

The time has come to accept what research has been suggesting for years...smaller classes provide more personalized attention, more opportunities to learn, greater academic achievement, and provides a lesser *assembly line* "factory-model" paradigm (Darling-Hammond, 2002). ALL children can learn but NOT using the same mode of learning or being exposed to the same teaching strategy. One size does not fit all...but a more personal approach is needed to be implemented to educate "one kid at a time" (Levine, 2002). No Child Left Behind (NCLB) seeks to redefine "average," progressively. Therefore, putting fewer students into a classroom might provide the ability to design a greater educational "fit" for those students, raising expectation (beyond aiming for the average), and providing each student with a greater sense of *esprit de corps* (team-family relationship, so vitally important and needed by this age group). All students have the potential to excel, if they are challenged, motivated, and have the components in place that will meet their social and developmental needs (Littky, 2004; Trimble, 2004; Levine, 2002). That does *NOT* mean coddling, as many critics accuse, but it does mean recognizing and accommodating *when* and *where* necessary in order to get the most productivity and scholastic achievement from the student (Russo, 2005; Dphrepaulezz, 2001). For example, Manzo (2000) reported in *Education Week* that, "Experts say middle schools create curricula that is shallow, fragmented, and unchallenging." In my opinion...twenty-five is far too large of a classroom enrollment for a single teacher to be expected to develop a nurturing and emotionally supportive classroom atmosphere, in which each and every student feels that they belong. We are presently not making big improvements on the "big picture." We must realize that this is not a matter of academics vs. developmental appropriateness, it is about doing BOTH! Rigor and accommodation are not options, they are standard requirements. We cannot, and should not, water down the academics, nor should we, or can we, ignore the stage of development to adulthood that these students are experiencing. It is time that we truly began thinking "outside of the box" and stop "boxing" pedagogy in by ridiculing those who are brave enough to try new and innovative means of educating our youth (Ackerman, 2003; Lawrence, 2004).

As our nation becomes more and more a pluralistic "salad-bowl" we must learn as educators that ALL children can learn, but ALL children do NOT learn *best* in the same manner, fashion, time frame, style, mode, or at the same rate or asymptote of learning (Stitt-Gohdes, 2001; Sternberg, 1999). *Preferred* learning styles do play a part in effective teaching and this requires a closely examination (Brown, 2003; Miller, 2001). It is time that we take the research suggesting we work from a student's natural strengths to improving their areas of weakness (Becker & Maunsaiyat, 2004; Treagust, Duit, & Fraser, B. J., 1996; Piaget, 1929; Vygotsky, 1962). If middle level adolescents do not experience academic achievement and success before they leave the middle or junior high school, then they probably will not ever experience it. As one middle school student stated, "Everyone in the school knows what I can't do, absolutely no one knows what I can do!" (as quoted in Baum, Cooper & Neu, 2001, p. 488). Only those who become "enlightened" because of some goal or passion are ever going to pull themselves up by the "bootstraps," so to speak. I would aim to limit all classes to 20 students per teacher (though I am NOT saying this is a magic number). Surpassing that figure requires the teacher be given a teaching assistant in order to improve the number of close relationship opportunities that a student could encounter with another adult.

✣ Have a minimum of two full computer labs with 40 computer stations — classroom labs or wireless laptops — in addition to labs used in regular curriculum.

This is a positive gesture to increase the number of opportunities to utilize technology; however, it falls short of *implementing* and *integrating* technology in the classroom. I recall as a classroom teacher trying to schedule lab times for my classes. Most teachers will agree that when one needs the computer lab it

cannot be utilized for scheduling problems...or that some teachers use the lab far more than others. What we truly need is not more labs. Labs either sit dormant at times or are overbooked. They do not provide those opportunities when questions and "teaching moments" occur in the classroom when having access to the Information Highway would prove not only to be a valuable resource, but one that would motivate students and provide an application for the concepts which they are learning at the moment. With the proposed 20 students per classroom...there should be adequate terminals, desktops, laptops, or notebook computers available at least for every two students. That is ten computers per classroom. That would be a minimum to adequately permit the "natural" interaction and integration of classroom lessons and students' questions. Such an arrangement would at least enable a teacher to put one-half of their students at work on the computers for various projects and activities while engaging the other half in further learning opportunities.

The computer industry, which has the most to gain from integration of technology in classrooms, needs to provide us with more competitive pricing for equipment. They provide "discounts," but the truth is they could be much more accommodating with their profit margins from educators. Regardless, we must "think outside the box" and provide students with the newest technological training so as not to *leave them behind*. This, of course, almost means that we are going to have to do more in the way of professional development to equip our *teachers* with the raw and the integrative skills to utilize technology in the classroom. The day may come when we may need to hire some of our own savvy-tech students to teach their peers or their teachers how to use the technology.

✣ Have a maximum school size of 900 students and include space for teaming and collaboration.

According to Lawrence, Bingler, Diamond, et al., (2002) noted that, "Since 1940 the size of the average U.S. school district has risen from 217 to 2,627 (students), and the size of the average school has risen from 127 to 653" (p. 3). Approximately 70 percent of students attend schools enrolling 1,500 students or more; nearly 50 percent attend schools where enrollment is greater than 1,500 students (Skandera & Sousa, 2003, p. 24). It, however, in my humble opinion is nothing close to adequate. Our factory-model schools were inherited from the industrial revolution. They served us well in the early days of such growth; however, they too had their short-comings. Today, we live in a new era. In our quick-fix "microwave" society, it has been reported that information is now doubling every year and a half (The Problem, n.d.), whereas the Internet's capacity to carry information is doubling every 90 days (Giles, 2002). Giles also noted that early into 2002 the number of documents on-line that could be indexed exceeded one billion. With such an information explosion and our 200 year American tradition of providing *every* child with a "free" education (K-12), our system of education is stretched as never before experienced.

The larger the school the less personal that school becomes. Granted, there are schools that combat this with programs that promote "schools-within-schools," but for the most part the average student feels very isolated and unknown in a school of 2000 pupils, or even 1000. Teachers have many of the same feelings in such a situation. Nine hundred attendees in a school might be an improvement; it is not, however, ideal for making the changes we truly need in our country to improve the quality of education on a larger scale. School size, according to the National Center for Educational Statistics (2003), has a positive relationship with such factors as: percentage of teachers reporting apathy, tardiness, absenteeism, dropping out, and drug use among students in their schools (p. 60). Schools tend to be larger due to two simple reasons. The first should be questioned, whereas, the second is commendable though probably not nearly as utilized as some critics might argue. The main reason that schools are so large is that we *think* we are saving money by consolidating (Lawrence, Bingler, Diamond, et al., 2002). Lawrence, Bingler, Diamond, et al. (2002) propose that when calculated on a cost per graduate, small schools are less expensive than medium-sized or large high schools. Others educational researchers have indicated that the cost factors differences between larger and smaller schools were too small to be the most important variable (Gregory, 2000). Still further studies consider larger schools costing *more* but being worth the difference (Bailey, 2000). Consolidating sounds very promising...until one consolidates; then it creates a completely new set of problems. The much quoted *Violence and Discipline Problems in U.S. Public Schools: 1996-97* (1998) revealed that when comparing small schools (less than 300) and big schools (1,000 or more), big schools have:

- 825 percent more violent crime
- 270 percent more vandalism
- 378 percent more theft and larceny
- 394 percent more physical fights or attacks
- 3,200 percent more robberies
- 1,000 percent more weapons incidents

Those who have consolidated their debts may now find that they are not better off for they have continued their spending habits and as a result they have even more debt and more problems. The United Kingdom reported in 2001 that the larger a school becomes the less money that is actually saved (Local Government, p. 75). Consolidating schools seems to be a common sense strategy for raising the number of students served but for a smaller dollar figure (fewer buildings, fewer teachers, fewer administrators, fewer support people, fewer utility bills...fewer...fewer...oh, and less "personal touch)." Futurists have pointed out the effects of increased technology on society with

the concept of "high tech/high touch" (Nesbitt, Nesbitt, & Philips, 1999).Without arguing this contrast it suffices to say that in summation the more high tech we become the less high touch results (indicating the personable aspects of humanity). As we increase in "high tech" we must seek to improve and increase our strategy to improve "high touch." This lacking of "high touch," in my opinion, is the downfall of our consolidating strategy of US schools resulting in the creation of mega-schools. The second argument, and a commendable one, is that of increasing the number of courses and various programs that could be administered in a larger student body. These additional benefits are utilized by a very small percentage of students in any given mega-school. In some sense, the upper elite will benefit the most. Many of those "extra" courses that are provided due to having a larger student body are courses in not offered to "average" or "below average" students.

There is no secret number for the "ideal" size of a student body; however, nine hundred students in a school is still an industrial assembly line factory-model practice and one that I believe is very inefficient and ineffective for educating the general multicultural student population in our country. Lawrence, Bingler, Diamond, et al. (2002) have suggested that mega-schools are *not* as economically expedient as we might be led to believe. Bigger just might not be better, and it might not be "cheaper," either. If, for example, a mega-school of 1500 has serious problems with the dropout rate or diminishing numbers of students showing progress on standardized tests, then one should question whether there are causative or correlational effects that are unique to mega-schools. Sizer (1984) recommends schools of 400 are the most favorable when once considers the ability to change and adapt, especially regarding matters of curriculum. Skandera and Sousa (2003, p. 60, #27) consider "small" schools to be that of 300-400 students in the elementary level and 400-800 in the secondary level. Gregory (2000) and Cotton (1996), respectively, reported that student achievement was best served by elementary school enrollments of 300-400 students and that 400-800 students is appropriate for a secondary school (7-8).

From experience in schools of various sizes, I suggest that a school of 500 or 600 would be able to meet the academic needs of their students and provide a rigorous AND developmentally appropriate program for students during the adolescent years, as well as being financially feasible. The original impetus for the middle school movement was the concept of developmental appropriateness, seeking to become more personable, and finally to provide a rigorous academic program (Kinney, 2003; Manzo, 2000).

A smaller school, like the proverbial smaller pond, allows the average student to feel more a part of the educational family and team. Skandera and Sousa (2003, p. 22) noted that "small schools are superior to large schools on most measures and equal to them on the rest. Small schools provide teachers with greater influence, more personal time, and more opportunities to positively interact with each of their students...granted the class sizes are adequately sized, as previous discussed (What Are Small Schools, n.d.). Smaller classes and smaller schools could be just as economically vibrant as the mega-schools, if they are able to meet the scholastic and the supportive needs of their students...and would be more productive if they better prepared students for high school and beyond. In other words, we may find that the old adage to be true, "You get what you pay for," when comparing the mega-school to the smaller; namely, a more personable school. Wing (2003) suggests that there is evidence that smaller schools provide twelve worthwhile benefits over large schools. These include:

1) Graduate more students
2) Cost less per graduate
3) Save on management
4) Provide more funding for classrooms
5) Save on facilities maintenance, security and vandalism abatement
6) Recover funds through higher attendance and lower dropout rates
7) Reducing teacher absenteeism and turnover
8) Facilities cost less to build
9) Provide cost-effective operation
10) More flexible use of facilities
11) Can recapture a greater "market share" of students and revenues
12) Saving taxpayer dollars and strengthening the economy

The dilemma faced in the United States is the multicultural changes in our country's demographics, accompanied by the rapid changes in and caused by technology, are ushering America into the Information Age at breakneck speeds causing the system to buckle under a very different America than that of the era of the American Industrialization. We will not succeed in excellence if we continue to put our students through the assembly line programs of the average American factory-model school. We must learn to be more flexible, to think outside the box, and to think of what "might be," and not just "what is." We must recognize that ALL students do not learn best in the same manner or at the same pace. We truly need to be more *individualized* in our approach and recognize that education is not just important, it is vital (Littky, 2004; Levine, 2002). This obviously cannot be accomplished in large mega-schools. If we fail to provide our youth with the needed skills and training, our nation will erode in its influence, its power, and its stability. We must recognize differences of the various cultures within our borders, and provide a rigorous and (semi-) personalize approach to help ALL students to reach their maximum potential. A variety of schools are needed to meet this need. The mega-school may work for some students...it will not work for all. Variety is not just the spice of life...it may be the key to success in educating a nation's population. We need all types of schools to accommodate all types of students. Smaller schools can meet more of the demands, respond more quickly to the changes, and can help students

to "fit in" by providing personal, dynamic and supportive strategies. The rewards will benefit all Americans...not just the upper society.

❖ Provide ways for students to have meaningful connections with adults.

Many students do not see the relevance of education and they do not sense they that those in the system care very much for them. They have become a non-personal number. There are pockets of educators out in the field making a difference in the lives of their students. They are bridge-builders. They seek to provide the students with positive interaction. They model how one can act and contribute and become excited over learning. They seek to reach out to the families, not something that traditional education has done very successfully. There are many plans and many strategies being tried by those on the cutting edge.

The key is that programs are established in order to meet the *needs* of a particular school or district. There is no silver bullet and there is not quick fix. What works in Pagoda might not work in Osceola. Educators need to evaluate their own situations and design research-based decisions to alleviate the problem areas. Building bridges is going to have to be an acceptable responsibility of all teachers. One's relationship, especially with adolescence, will prove to be vital in facilitating student learning and achievement. If *I* think *you* care about me I will want to work hard and will want to please you. Like any other person, students want others to recognize them and to be proud of their accomplishments. This leads us full circle back to the reason which most consolidation measures only increase or exaggerate the problems of student alienation and disenfranchisement. For years educators have said that every student needs at least one person (teacher) whom they feel knows them well. We have said it but we have done little in the way of seeing it come to pass. We need to reconsider how we are working, or overworking, our teachers in areas of *less* importance. We need to free up more time for the personal interaction and bridge building if we truly believe that mentoring and caring are vital components to helping student become well rounded and life-long learners. This concept is not different in principle than what we say when regarding the importance of the home, homelife, and support from the home. Time spent is time invested. Our generation of latchkey children needs our time and attention and if they do not get this from school, they might not get it at all. They are becoming more violent, islands of isolation, or disenfranchised? That is a question we need to examine. If students disconnect from the values and goals of which previous generations thrived how will they connect with the society in which they live? Schools need to include measures to carry out plans to provide meaningful connections with teachers, the community, and a means of linking theory to practice. *Service-learning* and *community-based* education will become more and more vital in providing students with meaningful connections with adults and life (Furco, 1996; Kahne, & Westheimer, 1996).

❖ Provide academic, exploratory and extracurricular enrichment programs that are fully funded.

Exploration and *extracurricular* classes are part of the middle school concept. I, however, am seeing students being set up for future failure by not being enabled to read and compute simple mathematics equations. I think we must prepare students to learn. I believe we tend to see "black" or "white" on this issue and it really should be "grey." The coin has two sides. Education requires a student to be able to master reading and comprehension and the longer it takes them to do so, the less likely they will...and the more likely they will never graduate at all. Many of our classroom discipline problems occur, not because students are becoming worse in their behavior, but because their behavior is becoming worse in order to hide (smoke screen) their lack of abilities in the classroom. Students who cannot read and comprehend will tend to act up in ways to take the spotlight off of their inabilities by placing the spotlight on their misbehavior. In essence, misbehavior becomes a form of "save-face" and protects the students from feeling "dumb and dumber." In truth, it has little to do with intelligence and everything to do with instruction and the mastery of basic skills. We need to consider a program that provides students who have not mastered basic reading and computation with an integrated type of exploratory and extracurricular enrichment in order to help them reach mastery of these skills.

For students who are not up to grade level in basic skills need more than the traditional middle school exploratory courses. Under such circumstances, the typical exploratory course would be "icing on the cake" for struggling students. We do need to realize that "cake" is cake whether it has the icing on it or not. It is the ingredients that make it a cake not the icing. The cake still taste like cake...though the icing is, hmm, good. Most of our students would be very happy just to have a piece of the educational cake. They need help in foundational skills like reading, writing, basic grammar, basic mathematics, thinking skills, and opportunities to apply what they learn to real life situations. Why could exploratory or extracurricular activities not be integrated and centered on making real life applications to the concepts they learn? I would argue that we sometimes seek to give our students icing without the cake. Not very nourishing and certainly not very balanced in approach. Sure, we should provide extracurricular activities, but let us implement such programs that will assure that each student masters the basic piece of the educational cake before receiving the large spoonfuls of icing.

❖ Utilize data driven program evaluation processes.

Data collection has become more important in the last five years than ever before in the history of American education. The argument of teaching being both an *art* and a *science* is slowly giving way

to the *science* of teaching. It is time that methods, strategies, and procedures be examined and assessed in an orderly and rigorous manner. To do so is to provide educators with a better "fit" with expected results. Monitoring, assessing, and analyzing data will more likely give us useful and "generalizable" data that can be used with specific populations of students. Teaching, though not an exact science, can be improved upon and the most reliable way is to systematically assess, collect, analyze and to generalize the data. I do not suggest or promote the concept that one single government "approved" and operated data base for data-driven practices, which could prove to be misused and actually stifle (police) educational research rather than promote it. Collecting data for data's sake is time-consuming and expensive and if not properly analyzed just becomes another added duty to an already extended teacher or administrator. Utilize data, but do not restrict thinking and testing strategies that might be considered "outside the box."

❖ Provide ongoing professional development in middle-level philosophy and appropriate age-level teaching strategies within the contract day.

There is a need for teachers to understand the age/grade level of students whom they teach. Whether considering kindergarten, primary, middle level, or high school, teachers need to know their clientele's developmental, cognitive, and emotional dynamics. Teaching requires one know and understand their students? Knowing "why" and "how" are two important factors in facilitating learning and achievement. Many middle level teachers are interested and desire to learn more about their students in order to improve their pedagogy. We owe it to students and teachers to provide the proper training and professional development that allows teachers to keep up on the current research, as well as provides a means of improving their own teaching skills. The interaction and the comparing and contrasting of shared experiences among seasoned educators in such a course can provide for excellent discussions, brainstorming, and application to the general classroom. We need to practice more of this at the building level. It is a fulfilling experience when I see teachers walk away with a positive attitude and an excitement that they understand more clearly why their own students act and think as they do and how they can improve student achievement. Providing ongoing quality professional development is one key to getting teachers to respond and utilize the information to help their students become better learners.

❖ Ensure that teachers teach no more than two different class subjects.

There is plenty of evidence that indicates that "out of field" teachers think and teach very differently than those well versed in the discipline. Novices look at the pieces of a course or topic, whereas the specialists look at the entire picture that includes the pieces of the course. The expert sees how the facts make up the concepts and how the concepts make up the principles. A great teacher is one who has mastered the principles of teaching for learning. Out of field teachers have not mastered these specifics, either content or processes. Placing teachers in courses in which they are not prepared to teach in is not only poor pedagogy it is taking the chance that students will fall behind their peers. We have a dilemma in this country; the best teachers tend to teach the "best" students. Overextended teachers are not going to be the most productive and effective teachers. With the attrition rate for teachers being fifty percent in the first seven years of teaching (National Commission, 2003; Skandera & Sousa, 2003) should cause us to want to consider the reasons of training great teachers and keeping them in the profession. It is not fair to students, or to teachers, when assigned too many preparations, and it should not be allowed to assign them preps for which they are not trained to teach. Hire the best teachers, then working on keeping them. Gordon (2003) reported that the expense of losing a first year teacher will cost a district approximately $12,000. The cost of losing a third year teacher could even reach $50,000 (Gordon, 2003, p. 35). Preparation time is not a fringe benefit, it is a necessary and vital time of planning, grading, and creating...and some teachers never ever get "caught up." No wonder new teachers leave us and go into other professions. Our induction programs should help guard their time and require less "busy" requirements than that of the seasoned veterans.

We truly have come a long way since the American Industrial Revolution. On average, however, our traditional public system of education and schools are still reflection of the factory-model of education where the product is stamped out on an assembly line based almost exclusively on past homogeneity. It is a "one size fits all" practice. The demographics and the era of our nation, however, are very different now. Yesterday's schools cannot meet the needs of today's students. Today's schools not those of your parents, or even yours. Change is inevitable. As the lyrics of one song stated, the only thing that remains the same is change. The times have changed. As we are well into the Information Age we must adapt and adopt by incorporating a large number of strategies and a large repertoire in types of schools and programs so as to reach the largest number of diverse students within our borders. I drill my preservice teachers that they must realize that "any strategy overused loses its effectiveness." I would recommend that middle level teachers, administrators and educators help us to think outside of the box and to provide as many types of schools using many types of strategies in order to reach many types of students, so that ALL students can learn.

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Harnessing the Call to Teach and Lead: What Future Teachers and Administrators Are Telling Us

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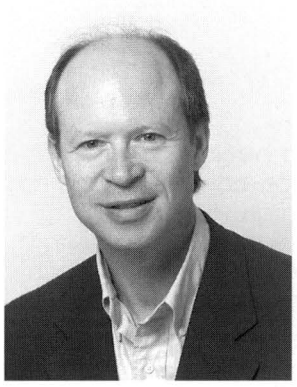

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Abstract

The decision work in schools often begins with a call to do something that has a transcending purpose. This is what Palmer (1998) called an "inner journey" which emerges from one's deepest self. Our paper explores how one's initial "call" to teach and lead, is embedded in many aspects of one's vision for their future vocation. We propose ways faculty can support the call and how it may help teachers and administrators gain and deepen satisfaction in their work.

Introduction

When one decides to begin a career as a teacher or school administrator, that individual applies to, and then enters a formal program leading to certification or endorsement in the area sought. The college or university program offers courses and professional experiences designed to help candidates acquire the knowledge, skills, and dispositions necessary to begin and succeed in their chosen vocation. The future professional is called, and the university provides the landscape necessary to find and express the voice of what Palmer (1998) called "the teacher within" or what might be termed the "leader within".

Unfortunately, while candidates may begin their professional sequences with the best of intentions and enjoy high quality courses, the working world that awaits them is for many a reality jolt that drives them from their chosen career. Today's statistics show that many who enter the world of education rapidly leave the field in which they anticipated spending many productive years. The attrition rate for teachers for example, is about 15% in the first year, another 15% in their second year, and an additional 10% in their third year (Croasmun, Hampton, & Hermann, 1999). The picture for principals across the nation is also cause for concern. In Illinois for example, over 60% of elementary principals surveyed in 1998 planned to retire at the earliest age allowed by the state system. The attrition rate for Illinois administrators with less than one year's experience was 23% in 2001 (Illinois Consortium for Education Leadership;2003).

While reasons for attrition are complex, many of the reasons are related to frustrations and difficulties in dealing with unexpected or changing realities and demands of today's schools. Our goal in this paper is to explore how one's initial motivation to work in education or what some term the "call" to teach and lead, is embedded in many aspects of a person's hopes and vision for their future vocation. We then propose ways faculty can support the call to teach and lead in order to help teachers and administrators deepen their satisfaction and remain committed to their work.

As professors who work with preservice teachers and administrators, our experience with students along with a great deal of literature supports the idea that the decision to teach or lead in schools begins for many with a call to do something that has a transcending purpose. This road begins with what Palmer (1998) calls an "inner journey" which emerges from one's deepest self. Teaching and leading in schools are careers which are in many ways unique in their power to touch the lives, thoughts, dreams, and the futures of others. Education has been known since ancient times to be central in its ability to shape the thoughts of individuals and to affect the lives of

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lives of untold numbers. We concur with Palmer that the rush to reform schools will be ineffective if it does not begin with understanding, cherishing, and challenging the human heart. The intellectual, emotional, and spiritual landscape all provide anchors to the work of those who toil in schools. Understanding, supporting, and embracing the call to teach and to lead can be the force which supports educators during times of stress, and ultimately work to help practitioners heal, strengthen and continue to embrace the vision that will continue to guide them along their chosen path.

Goals:

Our goals in this paper are to:

1. Present an overview and background regarding personal factors which compel people to become school teachers and leaders.
2. Present a summary of what was learned from candidates in preservice programs for teachers and administrators regarding their call to work in education.
3. Propose ways faculty can enhance programs by supporting the personal or inner journey of candidates.
4. Offer examples of classroom based activities which support the understanding and strengthening of one's call to teach and lead in schools.

Background

Preservice programs for school administrators and teachers typically focus on issues of content, pedagogy, methodology, and practice, but few devote time to exploring ways to maintain and nurture the inner voice which called many to work in schools. In fact, for many the opposite may be true. People enter education with idealism, but as attrition rates cited earlier indicate, they often become disillusioned and leave the field. Current literature has included the often ignored areas of calling, spirituality, and deeper aspects of personal growth which for many are at the foundation of why they enter and decide whether or not to stay in education.

The search for personal satisfaction through work was the focus of a recent issue of "The School Administrator" (Kessler,2002). Authors explored the issue of personal fulfillment and spirituality among educators, calling it the "third dimension beyond thinking and doing". Deepak Chopra and Michael Fullan discuss spiritual ideas which drive school leaders. They and others recommend ways for principals to find a sense of purpose, calm, caring, and gratitude during times of turbulence and difficulty. Kessler describes gateways to the soul in education, including the exploration of silence, finding deep meaning, purpose, joy, creativity, transcendence, and deep connection. This framework explores ways in which "respectful practices can be integrated into classrooms to honor these gateways to the soul of students" (p.22).

A companion text to "The Courage to Teach (Palmer, 1998) titled Stories of The Courage to Teach (2002) states in the forward:

"Teaching is a calling, a vocation that requires constant renewal of the mind, heart, and spirit. Teachers come to the profession inspired by a passion to help others learn. They are drawn to education by an ethic of service and a mission to make a difference in the world. Good teachers care, and they keep finding ways to connect with students. Despite working in a system that often leaves them feeling exhausted, depleted, and vulnerable, they do not check their hearts at the door".

Data

Teaching and administrating schools involve professional and personal dimensions. Palmer (1998) discusses the vulnerability of teaching because it takes place at the "dangerous intersection of personal and public life" (p.17). This causes a distancing of teacher from student (and perhaps principal from teacher) that minimizes the danger, but causes a self protective split. He suggests that remembering the identity and integrity of the wholeness of our lives is a critical step in rediscovering the place in our heart which compels our vision.

In order to better understand the ideas and thoughts of preservice candidates on the issue of calling and related issues, we prepared and administered a questionnaire. Our survey was designed to help understand how candidates consider their calling and allow us to explore how this affects personal dimensions of their vocations.

Responses were coded, summarized, and analyzed for alignment with three larger themes that emerged from the literature. Each area is defined, discussed and explained by using responses by preservice teachers and administrators, and questions. Questions such as the ones we used as well as other supporting activities can begin a process to enhance and support the calling and commitment to teach and to lead. This kind of reflective engagement on issues of calling can become beginning steps for transforming preservice preparation into places to discover (or rediscover) the inner voice and life experiences which fueled the desire to teach and lead in schools.

Questionnaires were given to undergraduate teacher candidates as they began their senior year practicum sequence. Administrator/school leader candidates were in their final course work for graduate degrees leading to state principal and superintendent endorsement.

Following are questions along with thematic categories which emerged, response percentages from those categories, a set of sample responses and suggestions for further reflective questions.

Themes of Calling

People choose to teach for "reasons of the heart," according to Palmer (1998). We begin with an overview of three themes identified by current literature that address issues of calling and personal commitment. These themes are:

- Individual/Personal
- Community
- Mentorship

Personal/Individual

The decision to teach begins with the individual and has often been described as deciding not merely to do a "job" but rather as a "calling" (Serow, 1994). According to Serow, a calling:

"...signifies a high degree of commitment to a specific position, to which the incumbent sees herself or himself specifically drawn. Those who are called, therefore, would not merely discover a field that would be an appropriate match for their talents; rather, they would be convinced that their line of work uniquely lends meaning or wholeness to their lives (p.65)."

The language of calling originated with religious overtones in medieval Christianity; however the secularization of much language and culture has loosened the religious underpinnings and retained the special linkage between the teacher's work and his or her innermost self (Serow, 1994). Both quantitative and qualitative results indicated in Serow's study that "the sense of being called to teach exercises a far-reaching influence on the formation of preprofessional self identity."

The idea that individuals are called to teach is shared by many future teachers. A study of preservice teachers by Whitbeck (2000) showed a majority of candidates viewing teaching as a calling, and indicated that this affected their impressions, beliefs and other areas they felt they needed to learn in order to be successful teachers.

John Neafsey (2003) suggests how one may use a variety of dimensions associated with key themes for deepening a person's understanding about one's calling in life. According to Neafsey:

"It is assumed that a genuine sense of personal calling can be experienced by *anyone*, regardless of his or her religious background or current religious practice. It could be said that each and every human person has a vocation, and that *all* of us, whether or not we are aware of it or respond to it, have the potential to hear and follow a personal calling in our own lives (italics in original).

The call to teach is described by Palmer (1998) as the voice within that speaks to identity and integrity. The call helps one understand what fits, what gives a person life and reminds a person of their inner truth. He explains the importance of listening to that voice:

"We need to find every possible way to listen to that voice and take its counsel seriously, not only for the sake of our work but for the sake of our own health as well. If someone in the outer world is trying to tell us something important and we ignore his or her presence, the person either gives up and stops speaking or becomes more and more violent in attempting to get our attention" (p.32)

In discussing ways in which school settings can nourish the spirit and soul within, Miller (2000) explains: "Love and work are essential to our well-being and our souls. We need to approach both with attention, presence, and a sense of mystery....Bringing soul back to our love and work can allow us to approach both of these essential elements in a manner that can bring wonder, joy, and deeper feeling into our lives" (p.45).

Why do teachers continue to teach? With so many reasons to leave the profession, what do we know about those who keep working at it? A study by Nieto (2003) explores several factors. Inquiry groups often used the word "love" to describe how they felt about their students and the subject matter they teach. Love of teaching is perhaps the most fundamental element in sustaining a call to teach. It is seen in how teachers trust and admire students, their expectations for achievement, and affirming their students' identities (p. 16).

Roland Barth (2001) extends this discussion to the role that the school leader plays in fostering an environment in which the re-discovery of the spiritual occurs. Implying that an important part of the work as school principals is to facilitate dreams, he states:

School can become quite arid, unimaginative, and routinized organizations that provide youngsters and grown-ups alike an uninspired and uninspiring diet. Each of us entered the work with a magical, even spiritual sense of wonder-wonder about the universe, about ourselves, about those around us. We were blessed with the poetry of life. Somehow, over the years, that precious sense of wonder is neglected, abused, devalued, or extinguished within the family, the neighborhood, the school, or the workplace. Fortunately, for all of us the embers of wonder continue to burn beneath the surface. Just as a sense of wonder can provoke learning, so too can learning fan these coals and restore our sense of wonder (p.156).

In speaking to the principal about the need for the school leader to engage in personal reflection, Barth (2001) likens the school to a ballroom floor where the principal dances in the midst of it all. He calls for the crucial need to find moments to ascend to the balcony and observe and reflect on what is happening below. He explains that by ascending to the balcony, talking with one another in conversation, by telling stories, by walking, by allowing themselves to be consumed by a sense of wonder, principals reflect on their practice and allow themselves to be consumed by a sense of wonder.

The reflective practitioner, according to Barth, is above all, a learning practitioner. Yet, he finds that most programs for principal learning are targeted for professional development—development of skills of evaluation, budget, and curriculum. He laments that unfortunately ruled out is support, encouragement, and acknowledgement of the principal's personal development which might include capacities to express feelings, to be vulnerable, to take risks, and to trust. In describing how learning is holistic, Barth states:

"As learners, we are not bifurcated into two neat hemispheres, one called professional, one called personal. To the contrary, learning is holistic. Each of us

comes in one package. I believe that until we acknowledge and honor a large element of personal growth in our learning activities there won't be much professional growth." (p.160)

Parker Palmer, in The Heart of Learning affirms that today's schools foster a "systematic disconnection of self from the world, self from others." (1999 p.19). In discussing what is needed to transform schools, he explains that in the midst of all the current trappings of education today—the competition, facts, obsession with credentials, that we should seek a way of working illumined by spirit and infused with the soul. According to Palmer, "Attention to the inner life is not romanticism. It involves the real work, and it is what is desperately needed in so many sectors of American education" (p.16). Palmer asks that we reclaim the sacred which is at the heart of knowing, teaching, and learning.

Through connecting with our inner selves as a means to personal growth, perhaps all school personnel can find their "inner voice." John Neafsey (2003) refers to this as someone or something that speaks to our hearts in a compelling way that calls for us to listen and follow. By so doing, we connect with the earliest meanings of the word *vocation*, the experience of hearing and following a call or voice. How do we connect with our inner voice? He suggests posing the following questions:

- Have you ever had a life experience that seemed to "speak" to you about your life direction?
- What do you believe was the message?

Accordingly, activities which encourage reflection on personal voices are experienced in complex and individual ways. For instance, one's vocation may be a means of dedicating one's professional efforts toward fulfilling a worthy dream for repairing problems of the world, or transforming the world to a better reality. Neafsey calls this "The quest for a worthy dream". Through intuitive understanding and perhaps spiritual inspiration, one may educate in order to bring values, ideals, and aspirations to others.

Topics Nefsey suggests exploring include:

- The role of schools in one's dream of an ideal world.
- What values are most important in one's life.
- How working in schools can be a means to realize personal dreams.
- How to nurture a collaborative learning environment which supports one's talents.
- How to remember that each challenge is part of a calling.
- What personal activities are sources of personal renewal and how they can be part of a person's routine.
- Discovering which people support a sense of renewal and calling.
- How one's authentic self can be brought forth in one's work.

Findings from Future Teachers and School Leaders

Survey questions were presented to groups of future teachers and administrators. Following includes data charts, sample responses, and discussion. For each area the N=21 for T (Teachers) and N=21 for L (Leaders). Questions 1 and 2 are related to the themes of Individual/Personal aspects of calling.

Question 1: When did you first have the call to be a teacher/leader?

Chart 1: First Call to be a Teacher . . .

Themes	Teachers		Leaders		Chi-square Value	p-level
	N	%	N	%		
Discovered identity in youth, role-played "school"	7	33	0	0	7.00	.008
Self-efficacy – could make a difference and bring forth change	6	29	10	48	1.00	.317
Discovered while an adult while parenting and in the act of "informal" teaching/leading	6	29	8	38	.28	.593
Knew it would give a sense of personal fulfullment	5	23	0	0	5.00	.025

Several significant similarities and differences emerged from future teachers and leaders. In the area of discovering one's identity in youth and role playing as a school teacher is very strong for the future teachers and not for the administrators. Likewise with the sense of personal fulfillment which is much more prevalent for teachers. There is no significant difference for self efficacy and discovery of the desire to teach and lead as an adult. Here the future teachers and administrators share similar reactions.

Sample comments:

Discovered identity in youth - role played "school".

T (33%): I knew that I wanted to be a teacher since I was a child. I loved helping others who needed help when they were struggling.

Self efficacy - could make a difference and bring forth change

T (29%): When I was in high school, I had to struggle a lot with my language barrier, and my teachers were very helpful. I became inspired by them to follow in their steps and change positively a student's life.

L(48%): When I noticed things were wrong/outdated /inappropriate and the current leaders were afraid to tackle the issues.

Discovered as an adult while parenting or in the act of "informal teaching/leading

T (29%) I have always done well on supplementing my son's instructions from school and teach him areas of interest. I also volunteer as a room parent. My son told me"mom, you're good at what you're doing, why not go back to school and get paid for it?". It took my son for me to realize I'm a good teacher.

L (38%): In my current position, I have found that in many ways some of my responsibilities gave me to be a leader of the special education team. Therefore, why not get the certificate so that I can be a true school leader.

Knew that it would give a sense of personal fulfillment.
T (23%): When I came back from South America being a missionary for my church. I found out that while I was teaching my beliefs, the people would react in a way that made me happy and fulfilled.

Comments
Clearly, important early and later life experiences affected career decisions. Candidates recalled childhood events as well as adult encounters particularly as a parent, which drove them to embark on a career where they could use their talents. Among school leaders, the desire to make a difference in the lives of others is an important driving force. Topics for reflection and activities might include:

- How is working in schools a means for you to realize your personal dreams?
- What kinds of personal activities are sources of personal renewal and how can they be part of my routine?
- How is your authentic self brought forth in your work?

Question 2: For teacher candidates: What unique qualities of your "inner self" (who you are) will you/do you bring to a school?

For future administrators: Is it important to bring your "inner self" to your role as a teacher/leader? Why or why not?

Chart 2: Unique Qualities You Bring to a School . . .

Themes	Teachers		Leaders		Chi-square Value	p-level
	N	%	N	%		
Have an ability to make a difference – make things better	8	38	5	23	.69	.405
Caring, understanding, patience, sensitivity	10	48	10	48	0.00	1.000
Cultural identity	2	10	0	0	2.00	.157
Knowledge and experience	0	0	3	14	3.00	.083
Dedication	0	0	3	14	3.00	.083

There appeared to be no significant differences between teachers and leaders in this area with both groups showing much agreement. In the area of caring, understanding, patience, and sensitivity, there were identical responses indicating shared understanding of the priorities to be placed in this area.

Sample comments:
Have an ability to make a difference - make things better

T (38%): I am a very positive and outgoing person who likes encouraging my students to overcome challenges in life and providing them with tools what will last for life.
L (23%): My passion for bringing the best solution for the most people to bear on any problem.

Caring, understanding, patience, sensitivity
T (48%): Patience, excitement to learn from others and succeed.
L (48%): Caring, compassionate, team approach, passionate, fair.

Cultural Identity
T (9.5%): Being Mexican and proud of it. The cultural differences I've experienced growing up, the diversity of a school is what would get me there.

Knowledge and experience:
L (14%): I bring a wealth of knowledge from different districts. I bring a sense of sensitivity to matters that need sensitive care.

Dedication:
L (14%): Dedication, perseverance, intensity.

Comments: Future teachers and administrators see themselves as caring and compassionate toward others. They want to bring their personal qualities to their schools and use these qualities to improve schools and society. This motivation apparently comes from within and can be a powerful factor in entering the profession. Faculty may want to consider the following questions for reflection and activities:

- Have you ever had a life experience that seemed to "speak" to you about your life direction? What do you believe was the message?
- What is the role of schools in your dream of an ideal world?
- What values are most important to your life?

Community

Growth, commitment and change occur within communities. Communities of students, colleagues, neighborhoods, and school communities can be arenas of support and can sustain commitment to education. The earlier quoted study by Whitbeck (2000) found that teaching candidates who felt a sense of calling often display an elevated sense of self and of their value to society. Nurturing this value may be an avenue for teachers to emphasize the importance of social justice and equity in their curriculum and classroom activities.

In Nieto's (2003) discussion on why some teachers continue in the classroom and what sustains them, the area of how they care about social justice is a powerful motivator. Teachers explain how their personal identity is threaded throughout their teaching through their involvement with movements outside education for social justice (civil rights, anti-apartheid) and inside education (bilingual education, multicultural education). These commitments helped drive teachers to maintain their dedication and commitment.

Palmer (1991), in his essay, *The Grace of Great Things: Reclaiming the Sacred in Knowing, Teaching and Learning*, refers to education as a life-giving power. He claims that education is about healing and wholeness, and that in its ability to empower, liberate and transcend, it, in fact, renews the vitality of life. He

further posits that as we use education to find and claim ourselves and our place in the world, that, in fact, we reclaim the sacred at the heart of knowing. In so doing, according to Palmer (1991), we reclaim education from a mode of knowing that honors only data, logic, and analysis, and an unfortunate disconnect of self from the world, self from others. To recover our sense of the sacred in knowing, teaching and learning, would be the key to recovering our sense of the otherness of the world—the precious otherness of the things of the world. Palmer concludes that in this recovery of the sacred we then recover our sense of community with each other –our sense of connective capacity to connect with students, and to the subjects being covered.

Palmer (1991) extends this discussion with the notion that when individuals who feel very isolated in the midst of their culture can become "in touch" with this life-giving power, they become catalysts for powerful movements. He cites Rosa Parks and Nelson Mandela as among those who uncovered their sacredness to discover their inner truths, and then led communities of other like-minded individuals. The community would be built among those who would make the fundamental decision to act and speak on the outside in ways consonant with the truth we know on the inside.

Neafsey (2003) believes that perhaps the highest calling is to become an ever-more compassionate and just human being in an unjust, often heartless world. Parks and Mandela demonstrated what Neafsey refers to as the capacity to feel pained by injustice in the world and particularly the capacity to do something about it –as the "awakening from the sleep of inhumanity." This sense of community, ignited by the compassion which sensitizes us to the plight of others, and moving us out of indifference, then makes us conscious of unjust systems, ideologies, and forces that produce injustices in the first place.

Question 3: Is it important to bring your "inner self" to your role as a teacher/leader? Why or why not?

Chart 3: Importance of "Inner-Self" . . .

Themes	Teachers		Leaders		Chi-square Value	p-level
	N	%	N	%		
Allow you to bring various personal qualities that will allow you to be more effective	11	52	11	52	0.00	1.000
You will teach/lead "who you are" and be authentic	6	28	9	42	.60	.439
Serves as source of self-inspiration	3	0	0	0	3.00	.080
Bringing your inner-self ignites passion, enjoyment, comfort in the class/school	6	28	0	0	6.00	.014
Sustains me	0	0	3	0	3.00	.080

Questions 3 and 4 relate to the area of community. Responses to the question about whether it is important to bring qualities of one's inner self brought 21 "yes" responses from both groups showing full agreement regarding the importance of this area. There was significant difference in this area as teachers ssee themselves as harnessing their inner selves as a source of passion and enjoyment in their classrooms at a higher rate than administrators.
Sample responses:

Allows you to bring various personal qualities that will allow you to be more effective
T: (52%) Yes, because you can be more successful with children if you use your own qualities.
L: (52%) Yes –people connect and follow the inner self of a person. Fundamentally, if people can relate to the core values of their leader- they will be able to do more and will feel fulfilled.

You will teach/lead "who you are" and be authentic
T: (28%) I think it is important to bring my inner self to my role as a teacher. This is who I am and what and who I am is very important and no one can change that. This is what makes every teacher very unique. The good person that I am on the inside shines as well as on the outside.

Serves as source of self-inspiration
T: (14%) Yes, if you don't bring your "inner self" to your role as a teacher, you'll get bummed out easily, lack of motivation will creep in, resentment follows until you won't be an effective teacher anymore, or worse, hate yourself for it.

Bringing your inner self ignites passion, enjoyment, comfort in the class/school.
T: (28%) Yes, I feel it is very important for a teacher to bring his/her "inner self" into the classroom because that's what the teacher is passionate about.

Sustains me
L: (14%) It's crucial; you can't hide who you are in a role that is as stressful as it is. Yet sometimes you have to take the other perspective into consideration but you must remain true to your inner self or burn out.

Question 4: What should school leaders/colleagues do to allow you to bring your "inner self" to a learning community?

Chart 4: What Should School Leaders/Collagues Do to Allow You . . .

Themes	Teachers		Leaders		Chi-square Value	p-level
	N	%	N	%		
Allow for autonomy in the classroom expressed through curriculum, methods, decor, and style	12	57	0	0	12.00	.0005
Provide a school culture which is open, non-judgmental, trusting, and honors different viewpoints	5	23	16	76	5.76	.016

A significant difference here between teachers and administrators is the desire for teachers to want autonomy in the classroom while leaders emphasized the need for an open, non-judgmental environment.

Sample responses:

Allow for autonomy in the classroom expressed through curriculum, methods, décor, and style.
T: (57%) Be open to creativity and allow not only me but also other teachers the ability to use their strongest qualities into their work.

Provide a school culture which is open, non-judgemental, trusting and honors different viewpoints.
T: 23%) Just be accepting of each other and allow each other to be themselves and not to judge anyone.
L: (76%) Openness for collaboration and communication.

Comments: Future teachers and administrators want to bring qualities of their inner self to their vocation. They agree that it would increase their effectiveness and help connect with others. It is the relationship between their passion to succeed and who they are that motivates and inspires. Teachers were concerned with being able to work in an environment which was open and non-judgmental. They want to collaborate with others and be accepted as they strive for success.

Implications for the preservice classroom: Guiding questions for reflection and activities:

- As schools are agents of social change, when was the last time you were moved by the needs of another person/group of people?
- Have you ever experienced a "wake-up call" to pain/injustice in the school setting? If so, what feelings were stirred in you, and what did you do about them?
- How can personal and collegial interaction become safe places for exploration and growth.

Neafsey (2003) discusses the call of service where genuine callings are characterized by a sense of social responsibility and generosity (p.10). He suggests discussion of the following:

- How can personal and collegial interaction can become safe places for exploration and growth?
- What will you do to sustain a learning community which supports your calling?
- How can your talents and gifts be put to use to make the world a better place?
- Do you naturally identify or sympathize with the sufferings or aspirations of any particular kinds of people? Is there any group you are drawn to help?
- Where do your "deep gladness" and the "world's deep hunger" meet?

Mentorship

Much has been written about the need for greater attention to mentoring of teachers and administrators. Attributes that have been used to describe mentors include trusted guide, counselor, teacher, confidant, role model, sponsor, change-facilitator, coach, protector, and leader (Gold; 1996, p.572). Mentoring is viewed as a powerful means to improve quality and retention of new teachers (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1996).

Through field experiences, preservice teachers have an early opportunity to develop a mentor/mentee relationship, and explore ways to look to mentors as an important support component in the call to teach and lead. This area has been explored in professional literature in a variety of ways. Some suggest the cooperating teacher provides mentoring which may be the most important factor in impacting preservice teaching candidates (Tabachnik & Zeichner; 1984, Enz & Cook; 1991). A project described by Moir and Bloom (1996) assists mentors through training, coaching, and observation. Training allows high degrees of effectiveness in working to help classroom teachers work in what they perceive as a supportive school culture. Moir and Bloom (1996) state: "We have found that mentoring offers veteran teachers professional replenishment, contributes to the retention of the region's best teachers, and produces teacher leaders with the skills and passion to make lifelong teacher development central to school culture" (p.58).

The importance of mentors in sustaining the call to teach has been cited in other studies as well. Nieto (2003) discovered that teachers who remained committed to teach found themselves sustained by others including "colleagues to whom they could turn for support".

Candidates will have opportunities to discover and act on needs to mentor and be supported by mentors. Questions of the relationship of mentors and the role of mentorship as response to the needs of others will be considered. Students will explore the roles of trust, perspective, comfort, and fear in the process of growth.

There is a need to bring what Barth (2001) calls the "wisdom of experience." to the field of leadership. He explains that while new educators bring energy, hope, and new ideas to the profession, it is the veterans who carry an abundance of craft knowledge. Mentorship, in this sense, calls for veteran teachers and leaders to share what is typically lost:

"Next June, in almost every school in the nation, teachers and administrators will retire, leave the profession forever. And when they walk out the schoolhouse door for the final time, they will carry with them an enormous collection of experiences, and learnings from those experiences. They will be loaded to the gunwale with craft knowledge which, henceforth, will be forever lost to the school, to their colleagues, and to the profession. In this way, craft knowledge, continually bled off from our schools, taken to the grave---unappreciated, unwelcome, unrevealed, and unused. What a tragic loss to the profession, to the professionals, and to the cause of school reform. (p.60)

Sergiovanni, in The Lifeworld of Leadership (2000) utilizes the theoretical framework developed by German philosopher, Jurgen Habermas to describe two dimensions that exist in any organization; a "life-

world" and a "systemsworld". Sergiovanni asserts that leaders and their purposes, followers and their needs, and the unique tradition, rituals, and norms that define a school's culture compose the lifeworld of the school. On the other hand, the management designs, protocols, policies and practices, and efficiency and accountability composed the systemsworld of the school. Sergiovanni contends that, "school character flourishes when the lifeworld is the generative force for determining the systemsworld, and that school character erodes when the systemsworld is the generative force for determining the lifeworld." (p.ix)

The community, then, according to Sergiovanni, is the heart of a school's lifeworld. It is where mentors engage with mentees about craft knowledge as well as common ideals and dreams. He discusses that communities require that people come together to share common commitments, ideas, and values and use this core of ideas as the source of authority for what they do. He contends that because communities are organized around relationships and ideas, they are defined by centers of values, sentiments, and beliefs that provide the needed conditions for creating a sense of "we" from the "I" of each individual.

Neafsey (2003) refers to this formative and transformative influence one can have on another's life as a way of "helping others recognize their dreams." Serving as a role model or mentor, such people as Parks and Mandela perhaps helped others to, as Neafsey says, identify the beginning of their own calling, and then to further encourage them to follow it. This kind of mentorship is the formative influence one would have on another in helping to determine, "What is my life trying to do with me?" Questions for educational leaders to explore this area would be:

- Are there people whom you have influenced to be the persons they have become?
- Are there particular events or experiences that come to mind in which you believe you impacted the way a person's life unfolded?

Preparatory components for future teachers and administrators can help guide them in ways to more deeply understand what to look for in a mentor and how to sustain this relationship. Neafsey suggests exploring the following questions and topics:

- What are the talents you bring to schools and how might they be experienced by students and teachers?
- Who have your role models been and what qualities made them mentors?
- How do you affirm the talents of others and how do you discuss this with them?
- How would you tell a colleague about an area of weakness you have seen or heard about?
- What are differences between mentor, friend, and colleague?

Mentorship

5. Describe the qualities which should be demonstrated by those who mentor teachers/school leaders.

Chart 5: Qualities Demonstrated by those who Mentor . . .

Themes	Teachers		Leaders		Chi-square Value	p-level
	N	%	N	%		
Provide emotional support	14	66	13	61	.03	.847
Provide help through knowledge and experience	14	66	12	57	.15	.695
Understand "new" teacher career stage needs	3	14	0	0	3.00	.083
Passion as leader	0	0	2	10	2.00	.157

Questions 5 and 6 address issues of mentorship. The above data shows general agreement in each area between future teachers and administrators with no significant disagreement in the qualities they seek in their mentors.

Sample comments:

Provide emotional support

T (38%): Patience and understanding of the beginning teachers' feelings. Be cooperative and critical, to give feedback so the teacher can learn.

L (62%): Professionalism, great listening skills, tact, and compassion.

Provide help through knowledge and experience

T (66%): Be able to help and instruct beginning teachers in areas to help them become excellent teachers. Patience, concern, openness.

L (57%): Patience, positivist, a passion for their position and also honesty on dealing with the different parts that are a reality.

Understand "new" teacher career stage needs

T (14%): Understanding - beginning teachers are still learning. Patience to let us learn. Help us to learn real-world instances.

Passion as leader

L (9.5%): Excellent school leaders are dynamic and have a vision and are able to inspire others.

6. Describe the qualities of a teacher/leader who impressed you as a role model

Chart 6: Qualities of a Teacher/Leader who Impressed You . . .

Themes	Teachers		Leaders		Chi-square Value	p-level
	N	%	N	%		
Provide emotional support	8	38	13	62	1.19	.275
Demonstrates well the "science" of teaching/leading	3	14	10	48	3.76	.052
Demonstrated well the "art" of teaching/leading	11	52	13	62	.12	.683
Is "other-centered" (student-centered, teacher-centered, school-centered	6	28	11	52	1.47	.225

Data reveals general agreement in all areas except the quality of a teacher or leader who they found impressive. In this area leaders identified those who demonstrated well the "science" of leading schools more frequently than future teachers.

Sample comments:

Provides emotional support
T (38%): Calm, patient, aware. I could "see" her thinking as she spoke. She was always very conscious to screen her words so she expressed herself positively and appropriately.
L (62%): Positive, affectionate, well organized, tried to bring out the best in me, flexible, open-minded.

Demonstrates well the "science" of teaching/leading
T (14%): He was very knowledgeable about the subject and his creativity of getting everyone involved.
L (48%): Some qualities that impressed me were organization, compassion, discipline, high expectations, supportiveness.

Demonstrates well the "art" of teaching/leading
T (52%): Patient, creative, had information not always heard, allowed for freedom of individual thoughts, never said "you're wrong" on an opinion, brought humor into the classroom.
L (62%): Character, professionalism, care, balance.

Is "other" centered (student/teacher/school)
T (28%): By making me a part of the whole class
L (52%): The school leader was committed to my growth as a person as she was to my growth as a professional.

Comments: Future teachers and administrators want emotional support as well as guidance in the skills and arts of their vocation. They look to those with greater knowledge and experience for leadership and modeling. A positive, caring mentor needs to demonstrate commitment and patience to best nurture the novice.

Implications for the preservice classroom: Questions for reflection and activities

- Are there people whom you have influenced to be the persons they have become?
- Can you recall particular events or experiences that come to mind in which you believe you impacted the way a person's life unfolded?
- Can you recall particular events or experiences in which others mentored you and impacted the way your life unfolded? What qualities in you allowed them to be a good mentor?
- What are the talents you bring to schools and how might they be experienced by students and teachers?
- How do you affirm the talents of others and how do you discuss this with them?

Summary and Recommendations

It is a long leap from the world of university coursework and field experiences to assuming responsibilities of decisions and actions in schools. When teachers and leaders find their jobs overwhelming they may question their choice of vocation and perhaps leave a field in which great success and gratification could have been experienced. Palmer (1998) discusses how we make decisions based on "sciences" of the world, and that we may ignore the inner realm of the heart as romantic fantasy. It may be the case however, that this inner space from which one's call emanates is the most important place to look. But little is done in our schools, our universities, and in our daily lives to support the nurturing of our passions, our visions, and our deeper selves as it applies to vocation.

Future teachers and school leaders reveal that their call to educate can be supported and honored in many ways. Clearly, part of the mission of professional preparation programs should include efforts to embrace and nurture the call which led these individuals to our classrooms. The path of the heart must be nurtured to meet the challenges of today and one day, pass the torch to others. To paraphrase an old adage, the journey of a thousand miles starts with the call to begin. Let's support that call.

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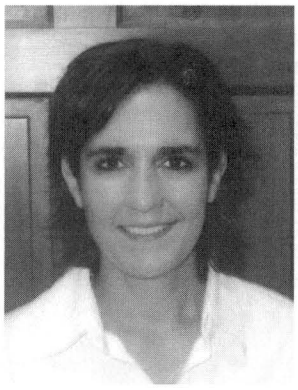
Authentic Leadership: A New Approach

Kristina A. Alexander



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Abstract

Are school leaders being poorly prepared? Do the traditional courses offered in the hundreds of administrator higher education programs adequately provide the necessary tools to succeed as an administrator in the 21st Century education world? These questions are being asked frequently by many different groups. Some of these groups are powerful and influential and may determine the future of administrator preparatory programs. Will what we know as traditional programs for the training of administrators survive the spate of attacks and clamor for new ways of doing it?

Much more has been said of the preparation of school leaders. Professional practitioners, graduates of university programs which train principals and superintendents, are among the vocally critical of what was required of them and how well it served their need to be job proficient. There are others who wish to move these programs from the university to the State Department and also to the workplace. Strongly meshed together are a large number of those concerned who wish to make the preparation of our school leaders more like an apprenticeship of the business world rather than academe. Others would eliminate traditional programs for all certifications altogether allowing those who succeed to be able to govern and lead. This paper discusses criticisms, selected on-going studies of school leadership programs, current programs and describes a new approach which combines the areas of theory and practice into a new and unique workable model. Results of a study of the student reactions are presented and treated. Survey results of student reactions to the new model is documented. A program, which attempts answers to some of the questions about how to improve administrator preparation, is described, analyzed and assessed.

The Current Scene

Programs in Educational Leadership have come under greater scrutiny in the last several years. State Departments of Education, feeling pressure from practitioners who when evaluating their own programs or assessing the strengths of new hires to assume the principalship, have felt that less than adequate university preparation had been provided.

The struggle to find new ways of approaching this problem has been tossed about, but in most part universities still rely on traditional class work taught by professors far removed from the real world who weigh heavily on the side of theory rather than practice. Worse yet, retired school administrators who have little enthusiasm for what they are teaching are employed to teach administration classes and create classes that are mostly war stories of their past experience and void of rigor or academic quality. Klauke (1990) stated in her report that today's administrators must acquire fresh skills. Schultz (2005) presented the argument that the typical university program for preparing administrators does not adequately do the job. Reform has been suggested by others who want changes in administrator preparation programs to be revised (Lawrenz, Huffman, & Lovoie, 2005; Petzko, 2005).

Improvement Studies

The status quo is not necessarily the case in all endeavors to prepare school leaders. Studies of innovative preparation programs for principals are currently underway to determine and possibly to change what is going on. A good example is the Stanford study (Darling-Hammond, 2005). The purpose of this work is to search for new and different approaches to university programs for administrators. This study conducted by The Stanford Educational Leadership Institute is supported by the Wallace Foundation. The mission of this research is to discover the qualities of selected exemplary programs. Why are these programs so good, what are the characteristics of leadership these exemplary programs provide and exactly how are they configured are the major questions to be answered. They also want to know what and who supports these programs, how much they cost and finally what kind of impact do these exemplary programs have on the schools? The last goal is to discover if the leaders these programs prepared are able to make a positive impact and demonstrate effective on-the-job leadership as defined in the research literature. Eight programs were selected for study based on their reputation of quality. All but one was university-district partnerships. These programs are located in California, New York, Connecticut, Kentucky, and Mississippi. The results of this study will no doubt shed new light on what is really working and could serve as a catalyst for change.

Levine (2005), President of Teachers College, Columbia University has recently completed a report very critical of the status quo in which he says that many university leadership programs are engaged into a "race to the bottom". He calls for a curricular

balance where theory and the practice of administration are combined. This would provide, he contends, both study in university classrooms and work in schools with successful practitioners. Few schools who prepare administrators set up mentoring relationships he reports and most professors are unable to serve as or effectively supervise mentors he goes on to claim.

Philosophical Underpinnings

There is no doubt differing opinions are prevalent when developing a curriculum for leadership preparation. These are value-laden choices as any curriculum matter would be. The present curriculum devoted to the time honored courses we commonly accept is still the major force in most universities and it typically consists of a foundation course, school law, supervision, personnel and some little field practicum as a capstone.

A wide spectrum of thought plays a role in believing which approach serves administration preparation best. Using the traditional educational philosophies is helpful in understanding the varying positions of those who are speaking out. The perennialist in most instances would favor traditional course work expecting the professor as the one whose major roll is to interpret and tell. The idealist approaches it from the need to sharpen the intellectual process. The realist would put more emphasis on what is the current practice and order and disciplined approaches emphasized, and experimentalists and existentialists would allow more freedom and allow students more flexibility, without regard to tradition. All those seeking change may fit one of the philosophical approaches more than another, but most would have pieces of all of them. However, a careful look and analysis of the current thinking would suggest there are few perennialists, few experimentalists and existentialists, and many more idealists and realists who are calling for change. They may be leading the crusade for change and at the head of the parade (Wiles & Bondi, 1984).

Apprenticeships

There are those who want to change both teacher and administrator preparation into what resembles an apprenticeship. Their beliefs might be described best as like the apprenticeship of the past which prepared artisans for future work. For example, the shoe cobbler would take on a young person desirous of becoming a cobbler. Through on-the-job experiences, actual cobbling, asking a practicing cobbler questions when confronted with problems and a length of time with on-the-job experiences and mentoring, would allow those skills to be learned necessary to become proficient.

Attempts at Change

The business world is chock full of practical experiences for trainees and could be responsible for a movement to more and more job preparation for administrator candidates devoted to on-the-job worksite. Most frontline managerial positions are connected to traineeships, which are most like apprenticeships. Table One, which follows, is a summary of the New South Wales Government's Department of Education and Training and it reports an example of the number of apprenticeships and traineeship programs currently on-going (Department of Education and Training, 2005, *Apprenticeship and traineeship system data*). Table One clearly illustrates businesses' concentration of on-the-job training. The largest number illustrates the involvement of managers who must do traineeships. Listed last on this list is defined as education support—school assistants.

Existing Worker Traineeship Vocations
Table 1

Vocation	N
Business (Frontline Management)	7012
Transport & Distribution (Warehousing & Storage)	4098
Transport & Distribution (Road Transport)	3730
Process Manufacturing	2183
Retail Operations	1922
Hospitality Operations	1807
Food Processing	1753
Retail Supervision	1736
Transport & Distribution (Rail Infrastructure)	773
Education Support – School Assistants	768

In his publications Murphy (2001), with experience as a Professor at Ohio State University, President of the Ohio Principals Leadership Academy, Chair of the Interstate School Licensure Consortium and author of Educational Administration: A Decade of Reform, has expressed his assertion that there is enough power for change in the standards developed for the "Standards for School Leaders" adopted by the School Leaders Licensure Consortium. Groups such as American Association of School Administrators (AASA), National Association of Secondary School Administrators (NASSP), and National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP) all have provided input for this attempt to improve leadership preparation. The requirements for preparation necessary to meet these standards were intended to solve the problem.

Murphy's contention is preparation programs should prepare students to assume principalship responsibilities once, through a test; they have demonstrated a movement from focus on management to leadership. A necessity for effective leadership is the ability to show a discernment of compassionate and humanistic concern. Another key element is the wisdom of the renovation and change in dynamics of management. Future leaders must possess an appreciation of the community of school administration as well as the necessary partnerships that are involved. Finally, Murphy believes there must be an acceptance for morals and principles as well as philosophical and insightful dimensions of leadership (2001).

Most recently preparation program evaluations of students training to be administrators in some states have moved to a new format. Missouri, for example,

has in place the School Superintendent Assessment for superintendents and the School Leaders Licensure Assessment for principals (DESE, 2005). Although these requirements are not course specific, they do have an impact on the curriculum for departments preparing school leaders. These assessments emphasize abilities to analyze and solve real problems in schools and represent a change in approach.

Only a minor part of the curriculum requirements in Missouri focus on actual field experiences with on-the-job training. An academic two-hour course which translates into 90 clock hours of field work is all that must be done to meet state requirements. Thus, we could conclude that course work as it now stands is not an excellent preparation for these assessments and, in fact, one could argue not good preparation for a real job either. Advisory groups are presently working on a revision of requirements in Missouri but at this writing no major changes have been put in place.

Northwest Pilot

Faced with the challenge of criticisms of how school leaders are prepared, Northwest Missouri State University began exploring ways in which the current program could be improved yet, still meet the requirements set forth by the state regulations. Discarding all parts of the current program was not an option. The total abandonment of the traditional course offerings was not desired and not even possible and still meet certification rules set forth by the state (Northwest Missouri State University Graduate catalog, 2003-2005, p. 141-144).

A series of Department of Educational Leadership retreats were held. Heated and lengthy discussions by the faculty of the department took place attempting to establish a new and innovative program to prepare administrators. It was framed in an environment which set the limits of the possible revisions. Totally abandoning the current program was not a goal by the department. Meeting state requirements was required and understood as essential by all members. Staying within the bounds of academe with attention to work loads, qualifications for institutions and credits was mandatory. Less emphasis on theory and more emphasis on field work were to be included and were deemed a crucial element. Less face-to-face class time, but more learning in real world settings was also very important. The ability of students to accumulate more credit hours in class than in the traditional setting was also agreed upon by the department. Use of electronic computer enhancement to deliver instruction and communicate with students was an agreement that also meets the demands of the 21st Century. It was also deemed necessary to incorporate the new approach into existing offerings without total loss of the traditional program, and it was felt necessary to assess the effectiveness of the new offerings from both student and professor points of view. Due to the obvious budget constraints, it was also important to keep it cost effective and affordable for both the student and the institution. In depth discussion included the importance of an organization that would allow those with full time employment to participate.

After several days at the retreat in Nebraska City, Nebraska, the tree city where Arbor Day was first celebrated, the department proposal was born. It was decided to continue to use the traditional courses in the school leadership program, but blend and mesh four of the courses selecting two for one set and two for another set. The students' learning environment would involve much more focus on field work. Methods of Educational Research and Issues in Education were combined and placed into one set as well as School Supervision and Foundations of Administration into another set. These two new classes in each set would meet alternatively, reducing the face-to-face time for students. These classes would be supplemented through the use of the Internet and eCompanion. One example of this new approach would be by combining the classes of Issues and Research. A research questionnaire which asks questions about Issues could be blended with Research. Assignments would also require students to spend more time on projects which require students to work in the field with real situations in the schools. This might be done through the use of a community survey which could be administered to educators, patrons, and the general public. The proper construction of the surveys, evaluation and statistical analysis could be a project for the Research class with the Issues class left to deal with the sociological, philosophical, historical, and significance of what was found. This new organization was given the title Northwest Authentic Leadership Program and launched as a pilot during the spring of 2005.

The thrust of the program was the integration of courses and subject matter meshed that would allow them to be linked together and coordinated. The assumption is that a broader spectrum of learning will cause students to learn more and a realistic environment in the field removed from the exclusiveness of the classroom would be beneficial. Students were encouraged to work with practitioners and school patrons and the general public and use these groups' experiences and advice to help the students solve assigned problems. Classes would emphasize the nature of the real world of education and how it fits into what is being studied. Information can be shared via the Internet and eCompanion with the entire group of students and both professors can provide input, assess and direct learning in this way as well as traditional ways. Chat rooms, email, and other electronic programs can be organized to further share information and learning. The schedule might look as presented in the following illustrations.

Session number one. Face to face classes meet together for review of course content, explanation of eCompanion and use of computers and Internet, assign projects, assign teams to work on projects, and assign chat room discussion time.

Session two. Students work in field to gather data, prepare reports for individual and team assignments, visit practitioners, prepare spreadsheets, visit chat room to discuss projects.

Session three. Face to face for oral reports, class exercises, discussion, analysis of field findings, planning and assignments for next field project, guests, and videos.

Session four. Field work continued.

Alternating days are allowed for the preparation time connected to field experience with practicing administrators and other educators. Assignments were designed so as to mandate that students work closely with the field representation. Each assignment was coordinated so that upon arrival at face-to-face classes each of the two classes was able to mesh the real experiences with theory and apply it to the learning processes. For an example, an assignment for an appointed team of students might be to research and provide authentic information for a class discussion on home schooling. The team's responsibility is to find real parents who home school, interview them and create a video to be presented to the class or preferably schedule the parents for part of the class activity report so as to learn more from real home school parents. This would have been preceded by a reading assignment of clashing views from authors who are proponents and opponents of home schooling. A written e-Companion document sharing the clashing views by the students to the professor and class prior to meeting for the presentation would be required. Students then are able to connect the theoretical classroom discussions to the real world which 21st Century school leaders must face.

Assessment and Analysis

The students reported mixed reactions to the new system. Some of the comments made on the class ending surveys found that most students liked the ability to meet alternatively and have time for field work. A total of 82% said this was either a strongly agree or agree category. Sixty-nine percent said that face-to-face classes were their preference as their only choice.

Table Two that follows reports the findings of the survey that was given to the students at the completion of the course.

Students' Assessment of Authentic Leadership Program
Table 2

Survey Question	1	2	3	4	5
Had enough time to complete assignments	40%	31%	3%	20%	6%
The requirements of the course were clearly understood	32%	47%	3%	15%	3%
Using eCompanion was difficult for me	6%	11%	3%	51%	29%
I was able to use my personal computer to assist me with assignments	76%	9%	3%	6%	6%
More instruction on computer use would have been helpful	17%	14%	20%	34%	14%
The evaluation system used for grading was satisfactory	47%	38%	15%	–	–
All face to face classes are my preference	43%	26%	6%	20%	6%
The professor was willing to assist when asked	77%	23%	–	–	–
I learned as much or more using this system as I would in traditional class	29%	21%	9%	24%	18%
The opportunity to earn six graduate hours, one night a week, was a plus for me	67%	15%	15%	3%	–
Class assignments were appropriate and meaningful	29%	51%	11%	9%	–
I learned a great deal from this class	31%	46%	9%	11%	3%
I learn better by doing rather than listening	43%	43%	6%	9%	–
My computer skills improved because of this class	18%	32%	21%	24%	5%
The subject matter of the class was helpful to me as an Educator	26%	46%	11%	14%	3%
Using the computer and eCompanion for class was helpful in completing assignments	34%	40%	17%	9%	–
Classes offered in this format should be a regular part of educational leaderships' offerings	43%	34%	6%	9%	9%
Because I was able to earn six hours, I appreciated the opportunity to apply for financial aid	45%	6%	40%	9%	–

Notes:

1 = Strongly Agree 2 = Agree 3 - No Opinion 4 = Disagree 5 = Strongly Disagree

Conclusion and Summary

Our tendency as professionals who are at institutions where the preparation of school administrators is our function and that preparation is criticized, is to draw the wagons in a circle and prepare to fight to keep what we have. Many of the attacks may be based on reality. Our programs as they exist are not doing the job. This means new and innovative approaches are a must until the right formula has been discovered. My sense is even then we will be facing a horizon that never sets on the correct and only way. These things are ongoing and need modifications. Quality cannot stand still; it is ever changing.

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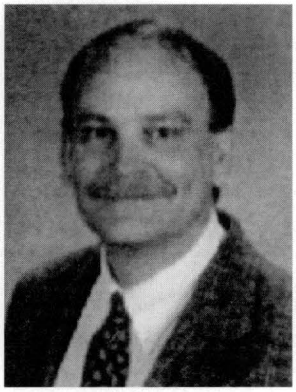
Where much is expected from an individual, that individual may rise to the level of events and make the dream come true.

– Elbert Hubbard

The Challenges of Full Secondary Education Professional Development School Programs: One Alternative

Paul D. Band and Steve Neill



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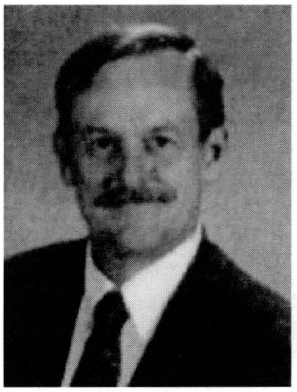

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Abstract

Many secondary teacher education programs are seeking to either create a large-scale Professional Development School program or expand a small existing PDS program. A number of difficulties unique to secondary education present themselves when institutions attempt a large-scale PDS program. This article presents one approach to circumventing these difficulties while being true to the Professional Development School philosophy.

In 2000, teacher education institutions in Kansas were shaken when the Kansas State Department of Education finalized and implemented its new set of teacher education standards. These standards redefined the nature of teacher education in the state and included criteria that not only identified what new teachers must *know*, but also listed what they must *be able to do* to qualify for a teaching license. The standards referred to these two types of criteria as "knowledge indicators" and "performance indicators" ("Teacher educational licensure," 2004). In order to help teacher candidates meet these standards, the teacher education institutions had to revise the kinds of learning and field experiences their teacher candidates were experiencing. Especially needed was an increase in the quality and quantity of field experiences.

Emporia State University was among those institutions to restructure its teacher education programs to meet the new standards. ESU has an enrollment of approximately 5500, with 150 candidates in its secondary education program. It is located in Emporia, Kansas, which is a community of 25,000 people. While Emporia State University works with many schools in various school districts, the public schools working in the closest partnership with the secondary teacher education program at ESU are Emporia Middle School and Emporia High School. The schools have a combined enrollment of 2300 students representing varied socio-economic and minority subgroups ("Education report card," 2004).

When the new standards became a requirement, the Secondary Teacher Education Program at ESU had two delivery systems: 1) a campus-based, traditional program that 95% of the candidates completed; and 2) a small Professional Development School program for selected candidates. The traditional campus-based program consisted of several years of preparatory coursework in general education and in the chosen content area. Then, after candidates were admitted to teacher education, they completed two semesters of education coursework and field experiences. The first of these professional education semesters was called Phase 1, which consisted of four university courses and a thirty-hour classroom observation. The second professional education semester was the traditional student teaching semester, called Phase 2.

The smaller secondary program, the Professional Development School, was already a field experience intensive two-semester program that easily measured

up to the new state education standards. Candidates in the Professional Development School program completed the same preparatory coursework leading up to admission to teacher education. However, in the first semester of the PDS program, the candidates spent a minimum of eleven weeks in Emporia High School, where a core group of teachers worked with the PDS candidates. The candidates divided the time at the high school between classes in the content area, an English as a Second Language class, a special education class, and the technology center. The education course content was delivered at the school in the form of seminar sessions.

The second semester of the PDS was full-time student teaching in Emporia High School. The high school benefited from this program in that it had additional personnel in these different rooms, assisting and teaching as needed. At the end of the program, candidates in the Professional Development School had much more extensive and well-rounded preparation than did those in the traditional program, and easily met the performance indicators in the Kansas Professional Education standards.

However, according to the new regulations, *all* secondary teacher education candidates needed to develop the performance skills identified in the standards. Thus, the campus-based secondary undergraduate teacher education program at Emporia State University would have to transform itself into a field experience intensive program. Program leaders first considered transforming into a *full* Professional Development School-type program, where all candidates in secondary education spent the two full semesters in a school just as those in the smaller PDS program did. The propose program would have involved blending the two separate semesters into a single experience for candidates that lasted all day, every day at a single site. Delivery of professional education coursework in this system would also happen at the PDS site involving both university and school staff.

The Kansas State Department of Education had adopted standards for Professional Development Schools that provided a blueprint for their development and operation in the state. These standards are entitled Kansas Model Standards for Professional Development Schools and are very closely modeled after the NCATE PDS Standards ("Kansas model standards," 2002). The Kansas PDS standards include the following: Standard I, Learning Community, which addresses delivery of curriculum and what candidates will do in the PDS; Standard II: Accountability and Quality Assurance, which addresses the need to ensure that PDS programs contain the same academic rigor as any other program; Standard III: Collaboration, which addresses collegiality and shared roles in the PDS; Standard IV: Diversity and Equity, which addresses the need for all students to learn; and Standard V: Structures, Resources, and Roles, which addresses governance of the PDS ("Kansas model standards," 2002). The ESU secondary education faculty wanted to develop a new program that met at least portions of these five PDS standards.

Problems

The ESU secondary faculty faced a number of difficulties as it looked at the possibility of developing a full Professional Development School program. Three main problems became apparent as secondary education faculty worked to create a full secondary PDS program. The first problem involved student schedules. At ESU, during the Phase 1 semester (the first education block), most candidates had remaining courses in the major to complete and a few had general education requirements to finish. Many had required involvement in campus organizations, activities, and performances related to their majors that meet, rehearse, or practice during the day. Therefore, to require an all-day everyday experience in this first professional semester would create time conflicts with their other requirements and responsibilities.

A second problem involved potential conflicts with other activities that a PDS system of a two-semester placement in the same building would create. By policy, candidates were not allowed to participate in athletics and other activities during student teaching. As a result, candidates were forced to student teaching during their "off season". A two semester program would eliminate that option and come in direct conflict with athletics, music, debate and other similar activities.

A third difficulty was finding enough buildings and teachers locally to accommodate the number of secondary teacher candidates enrolled at Emporia State University for a two-semester placement. Ideally, all secondary candidates would have their own placement for a year, but even when doubling up candidates in available classrooms, there were not enough area placements for this to happen. Therefore, a full Professional Development School secondary program would not work for Emporia State University short of converting the program into a five-year endeavor.

Review of literature

Professional development schools were established primarily to revitalize teaching practice and to provide more effective new teacher training through a sustained partnership between schools and universities (Zimpher, 1990). In the literature, the PDS design is frequently compared to that of a teaching hospital in medical education in that teaching university faculty and practicing professionals work together in the education of future practitioners (Carnegie Report, 1986; Holmes Group, 1990; Sedlak, 1987).

Research studies verify the belief that preservice teachers are better prepared for their professional duties when trained in a PDS environment. Several studies documented an increased level of involvement in such things as extracurricular activities and other school functions, assisting other teachers in their professional development and working in after

school settings with students (Christensen, Pierce et al., 1999; Houston et al., 1995; Wiseman & Cooper, 1996) among those teachers trained in a PDS setting.

Solutions

To construct a suitable solution to this dilemma, the faculty saw the need to design a program that achieved the goals of a professional development school design (to revitalize the practice of local teacher and improve teacher training) while working within the confines that existed in the university structure (student schedule needs, activity conflicts, and limited local placement options).

The secondary education faculty developed an alternative called "Field-Based Teacher Education". The design involved a restructured, field-intensive Phase I that led into the traditional Phase II. The new program had one goal in mind: the field experience was to be central to the restructured Phase I. The field experience would integrate across all Phase 1 courses and would have candidates come as close as possible to experiencing the "real thing" without actually taking over classes. Three courses in professional education were then built around the field experience: Principles of Secondary Education, a course in secondary curriculum and instruction; Classroom Management, a course in management, motivation, strategies for diverse learners; and Educational Psychology, a course in cognition, assessments, and related topics. The field experience was to be a course requirement for ED 333, Principles of Secondary Education.

The Phase I time block ran daily for approximately two hours, from 8:00 a.m. to 9:50 a.m. The high school has a block schedule of ninety minutes, with the courses meeting on alternating days. For the Phase 1 field experience, most candidates were assigned to a class at the high school that met during the Phase I time block. For example, the high school Block 1 met Tuesdays and Thursdays from 8:00 a.m. to 9:30 a.m., and Fridays 8:00 a.m. to 8:45 a.m. Candidates then attended a Block 1 class at the high school every time it met for the entire semester, thereby becoming a regular and integrated part of the processes of the class. The middle school schedule had classes lasting forty-five minutes, so the few candidates that went to the middle school were able to attend two courses on an every-other day basis. The formal class sessions for the Phase I courses met in the times in and around the field experience. The schedule looked like this:

- Mondays, 8-9:50: ESU courses
- Tuesdays: in the assigned internship classroom
- Wednesday, 8-9:50: ESU courses
- Thursdays: in the assigned internship classroom
- Fridays: in the assigned internship classroom, then ESU courses

Implementation

The arrangement provided the extensive field experience needed to meet the KSDE performance standards, as well as portions of Kansas PDS Standards. In the new program the candidates would attend a class every time it met and would work with the mentor teachers to enhance the learning of the students. At the same time, the candidates were learning "the ropes" of teaching and the mentor teachers were gaining many new ideas for classroom activities and assessments from the interns. Interns were to become essentially classroom assistants to the mentor teachers including the preparation of whole-class and small group instruction. The internship required application of concepts learned in Principles of Secondary Education, Classroom Management, and Educational Psychology, thus integrating the professional education courses into the field experience.

The Phase I team worked closely with the local high school and middle school administration and teachers. The Secondary Education Department recruited Building Coordinators to work with the Phase I faculty team to coordinate the school building activities of the Phase I field experience. The Building Coordinators have three broad functions: 1) placing Phase I candidates in a suitable classroom; 2) monitoring and facilitating the field experience; and 3) communicating with Phase I faculty regarding scheduling issues and changes in the buildings. The building coordinators were able to confer with the mentor teachers to keep a current roster of mentor teachers who were willing and/or able to accept an intern.

Addressing the Problems

The purpose of this program design was to increase the amount of time that candidates spent in field experience while dealing with the problems that adopting a full PDS design would create. The resulting field experience doubled the amount of time candidates spent in the internship experience. At the same time, the three problems that PDS would create were addressed.

1. Students were allowed to continue to meet the course requirements of their major fields without adding to the time required to complete their degrees.

2. The design did not require the additional semester necessary in a PDS design which allows students in activities to continue to participate as they have in the previous design.

3. The new design also addresses the limits of available teacher/mentors within commuting distance of ESU.

Discussion

This program is currently in its second year of operation. Secondary education faculty are looking closely at the way in which candidates are meeting the performance indicators in the standards, as well as completing the other licensure requirements in Kansas. One licensure requirement is successful completion of the Principles of Learning and Teaching exam, a standardized examination in the Educational Testing Service's PRAXIS II series, which assesses content in the professional education courses. While

almost all ESU secondary candidates in the traditional program met the cutoff score on the PLT examination in the first testing, education faculty wanted to ensure that the changes in the courses and delivery systems of those courses did not impact student performance on this exam. It appears that there has been no impact on student exam results. The university cites a 100% pass rate for secondary education majors on the PLT in its HEA - Title II Report for the 2003-2004 Academic Year ("Title II reporting," 2005).

From the mentor teachers' and candidates' perspectives, the revised program has been successful. The mentor teachers know when the candidates will be in their classes and can plan for their participation. Teachers use interns for a wide variety of tasks, ranging from clerical work to tutoring to whole class instruction. The main challenge has been to ensure that the mentor teachers do employ a system where the candidate gradually assumes more and more responsibility in their assigned class. Candidates report satisfaction from beginning their work in the school in a smaller scale and very gradually adding responsibilities than what they experience during student teaching.

From the school district's perspective, the program has enhanced their personnel recruitment system because it creates a "grow your own" system for teacher hiring. Since almost all of the candidates complete their internship in the Emporia district, district teachers and administrators can get to know the candidates well and watch their performance in the classroom for an extended period of time. A number of interns are asked by their mentor teachers to return for the student teaching semester. By getting a year-long look at candidates, administrators and teachers on search committees can make better informed decisions about hiring new teachers to replace those that retire, are transferred, or leave the district.

Attempting a wide scale secondary education Professional Development School program is complicated because of the many and varied requirements of the different departments. The field-based secondary education program at Emporia State University provides essential characteristics of a professional development school while allowing the secondary education majors to complete the requirements within their majors.

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Where education with dedication begins, greatness is always possible.

– J. H. Simon

Addressing Contemporary Issues Through Collaborative Methods

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Nancy Bragg, Patti Powell, and Victoria Groves Scott

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Abstract

Funded by the State Farm Insurance Foundation, the Illinois Campus Compact-State Farm Faculty Fellows program was designed to promote faculty development by integrating the traditional faculty roles of teaching, scholarship, and service with the roles of their K-12 collaborators. State Farm Faculty Fellows were engaged with K-12 collaborators in meaningful ways that enhanced, integrated, and extended the faculty fellows' professional work.

To varying degrees, educators in higher education embrace the three traditional faculty roles of scholarship, teaching and service. Increasingly, faculty members from all Carnegie classification institutions are prioritizing scholarship in their rewards systems.

Nancy Bragg currently serves as Coordinator of the Center for Teaching, Learning, and Technology at Illinois State University. From 1998 to 2005, she coordinated instructional programs and services for Illinois State's Center for Advancement of Teaching. She received her doctorate in Curriculum and Instruction from Illinois State University and has taught undergraduate, master's, and doctoral Curriculum and Instruction and undergraduate Educational Administration and Foundation courses at ISU. Service learning is her active pedagogy of choice. She has consulted with service learning faculty at ISU and faculty state-wide through Illinois Campus Compact.

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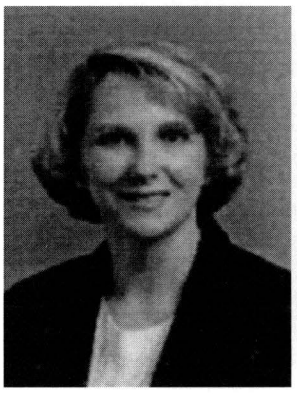

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When former Carnegie Foundation President Ernest Boyer (1994) created an alternative concept called the "New American College," he visualized an institution which would prioritize outreach and "enrich the campus, renew communities, and give new dignity and status to the scholarship of service."

Boyer was convinced the "academy must become a more vigorous partner in the search for answers to our most pressing social, civic, economic, and moral problems, and must affirm its historic commitment to what I call the scholarship of engage-

ment" (Boyer, 1996). His concept of the scholarship of engagement reinforced his earlier premise about creatively broadening the scope of scholarship. His new paradigm suggested that the scholarship work of faculty must emphasize not only the discovery of knowledge, but also the integration, application (outreach or engagement) and sharing of knowledge or the "scholarship of teaching" (Boyer, 1990).

Boyer (1990) coined the phrase "scholarship of teaching" to refer to teaching as scholarly work. Following the paradigm shift from teaching to learning (Barr & Tagg, 1995), the "scholarship of teaching" became known as the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SoTL) (Hutchings & Shulman, 1999).

Although Boyer's (1990) expanded conception of scholarship is not yet widely embraced, advocates from the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning movement and the Scholarship of Engagement (outreach) movement are promoting ways of framing integrative scholarship for tenure and promotion, in ways that will be valued by more traditional scholarship peers. It is, therefore, important to normalize integrative scholarship by developing models that integrate service, scholarship, and teaching. Moreover, the new understandings from systematic study on the part of the teacher are subject to peer review by colleagues (Glassick, Huber & Maerott, 1997).

Just as universities have outreach missions, so do businesses. State Farm Insurance (State Farm Website) "supports efforts to assure that all children have access to an education that will allow them to achieve their greatest potential and prepare them to be active participants in a nation and economy that continues as a global leader." Consequently, State Farm has been very supportive of the service-learning movement, especially in K-12 schools. State Farm Insurance Foundation and Illinois Campus Compact, a coalition of Illinois higher education presidents dedicated to supporting collaborative partnerships promoting civic engagement, co-sponsored the State Farm Faculty Fellows program. The monetary incentives promoted faculty development by requesting integration of the traditional faculty roles of teaching, scholarship, and service with the varied roles of K-12 collaborators.

State Farm Fellows addressed contemporary issues through engaging in their communities' K-12 schools in meaningful ways that enhanced, integrated, and extended the faculty fellows' professional work. The projects exhibited multiple models and delivery systems that offered educators from diverse disciplines different ways to think about implementing integrative and collaborative work. These collaborations enhanced the motivation, support, learning, and sustainability of this work. In addition to the campus-community organization and campus-school collaborations, other creative kinds of collaborations emerged: faculty-faculty collaborations, discipline-discipline collaborations, and college-university collaborations.

In this following section, faculty fellows summarized these integrative and collaborative projects; Exceptional Children Service Learning Project, Literacy Tutoring Project, Early Literacy Project, Early Literacy Bags in Special Education, and Action Scholarship in English and Psychology.

Exceptional Children Service Learning Project

Creative Collaborations

Introduction to Exceptional Children is a course taken by every education major at a small faith-based liberal arts college. Imbedded in this course is a 30-hour experience in high school classrooms working with students who have identified disabilities. Pre-service teachers were given the option to participate in the traditional teacher-aiding experience or the new service-learning experience. Thirty-two pre-service teachers were involved in the traditional teacher-aiding experience and sixteen in the service-learning experience. Both groups of pre-service teachers spent thirty hours over the course of the fifteen-week semester in classrooms working with students who had disabilities.

Pre-service teachers began the preparation portion of the service-learning experience by working with high school teachers and students to determine potential community needs that could be met with the students' practical skills. The pre-service teachers worked with the students to set up their service-learning, to enhance their practical skills needed for service-learning, to implement service-learning, and to plan the final celebratory events.

Multiple Models

The project methodology centered on several scholarship models. Narrative inquiry was used as a way of understanding experience through collaboration between the faculty fellow and participants, where the faculty fellow enters the experience of the participants. Portraiture was used to tell the stories of the high school students and pre-service teachers through their own voices (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). The portraitist acts as both a scientist and an artist, seeking to document and illuminate the complexity and detail of each unique experience, hoping that the audience will see themselves reflected in it, and trusting that readers will identify with the experience (Lawrence-Lightfoot & Davis, 1997).

The high school students, as they were able, wrote in reflection journals, spoke into tape recorders, or drew about their service-learning experiences. The faculty fellow also collected data from both groups of pre-service teachers through comparison of their reflection journals as well as pre- and post-surveys. The faculty fellow was interested in data about the connection of the teacher-aiding or service-learning experience to their coursework and about caring and altruistic behaviors arising from their experiences. She verified data through member checking with the high school teachers and pre-service teachers.

Forty-eight pre-service teachers filled out pre- and post-surveys designed to measure general atti-

tudes and perceptions of college students. This attitude and perception surveys were developed by D. Diaz, A. Furco, and H. Yamada from the University of California at Berkley and was administered the first week of classes and again the last week of classes.

Integrative Scholarship

The results of this survey will be used to understand and enhance the service-learning component of this class in the future. The results of the survey were tallied, mean scores were derived, and scores from the two groups were compared.

There were a number of interesting comparisons between both the pre and post surveys of each of the non-service-learning and the service-learning groups as well as between the two groups. Only scores that differed by at least .2, were considered to be worth noting.

On the statements, "I find the content in school courses intellectually stimulating," "I am concerned about local community issues," and "giving some of my income to help those in need is something I should do," the non-service-learning group went from agree to disagree while the service-learning group changed from disagree to agree.

A marked difference between the two groups of pre-service teachers emerged from the rich data from the reflection journals. After service learning participants became so personally invested in their students, several actually changed their majors from education to special education. These pre-service teachers not only gained an understanding of students with disabilities, but also of service-learning pedagogy.

The high school students with special needs learned relationship skills with strangers and ways in which they can help people around them. It also gave them "something they could be proud of." The students saw the real life application in the lessons and enjoyed doing them.

As teachers, students, and pre-service teachers learned from each other and served together, they each had the opportunity to make a difference in the lives of others.

Literacy Tutoring Project

This integrated teaching/scholarship/service project involved Literacy II tutors from a large public university addressing literacy needs of elementary students. All elementary education and special education majors take Literacy II. According to the 2004 Campus Compact Service Statistics, collaboration between institutions of higher education and K-12 schools is one of the most popular forms of service learning partnerships. A total of 90 percent of the Campus Compact member institutions (Campus Compact Website) have existing partnerships with K-12 schools.

Creative Collaborations

Terry Pickeral (2003) notes that the basic tenets of service learning - mutuality, reciprocity, authenticity, and democratic collaboration - make service learning a natural connector of the higher education and K-12 educational systems. Instead of resorting to the familiar unbalanced relationship models of higher education "using" schools as practice fields or providing services to schools, this partnership sought to meet collective needs by working with both schools. The plan was to accomplish more together than either partner could do alone by combining complementary knowledge and skills.

The Literacy II instructor met with the Director of Instructional Support Programs/Title 1 from the school district and brainstormed about what kind of scholarship could be done together that would be advantageous to both the school district and to the university. Since spring 2003, pre-service teachers in Literacy II have provided one-on-one tutoring for area elementary and after-school programs for half-hour sessions twice a week over a period of nine weeks. During the spring 2004 semester, there were 19 sections of 20 students for a potential impact on 380 area elementary students receiving literacy tutoring. Both partners were interested in what kinds of impact this tutoring was having on the elementary tutees.

At the collaborating school, second through fourth grade teachers identified potential needs and referred tutees. The fourth grade teachers noted a need for their students to work more with informational text. All teachers who referred students agreed to be available for questions from tutors, and to conference with tutors about their tutees' progress at the end of the semester. Tutors administered a basic reading inventory to measure reading progress and a survey to measure attitude towards reading.

Multiple models

In this model, the faculty fellow and tutors met at the elementary school two days per week for nine weeks for one-on-one tutoring predominantly with fourth graders. An unanticipated role of the faculty fellow, which became part of this model, was that of a liaison for other partnerships between the K-5 school and the university. Because the faculty fellow was aware that the fourth grade teachers expressed a need to learn how to teach informational text, when she heard a university colleague express an interest in doing something with classroom teachers and informational text, she connected the interested school and university parties. The teaching and scholarship interests of the university instructors and the classroom teachers complemented each other. Both university instructors worked together coordinating professional development opportunities for public school teachers, pre-service teachers, and university instructors to learn from each other.

The next fall, the university colleague's qualitative methods graduate students did qualitative scholarship in the classrooms of the fourth grade teachers, who have agreed to try a new informational text projects in their classrooms. The following spring, the faculty fellow's Literacy II students were to tutor fourth

grade students of the informational text project teachers, with more intentionality to informational text.

Integrative Scholarship

Based on the tutors' portfolio of reflections, assessments and documented work from the tutee, both tutors and tutees learned a great deal from this experience. However, because of the evolving nature of the new partnership, the scholarship did not go as planned. Originally, tutors were to work with second and third graders on skills which appeared on a reading progress tests at the beginning and end of the year, yet twelve of the twenty referred students were fourth graders who do not take reading progress post-tests. Only fourteen of the twenty students brought back signed permission from their parents to use their scores; only five of these were first and second graders who would be taking reading progress post-tests.

There were several possible confounding factors. This tutoring was to be the only intentional intervention, yet some of the students were also tutored by students from another university and some worked with teachers in a program after school targeted at raising reading test scores. Attitude towards reading was a mediating factor which may have influenced the academic outcome of reading progress. Attitude was assessed with a "Garfield" survey, where students circle one of four sketches of Garfield in different poses and with different expressions on his face. However, it is highly unlikely that there would have been a change in attitude on a question like, "How do you feel about reading instead of playing?" Yet, if one of the twenty questions had been "How do you feel about reading with a grown-up reading partner?" the response probably would have been positive.

Although their reading progress over the year was a result of many factors, all tutees progressed at least a half year and one second grader progressed 2.25 years. The scholarship gave seriousness to the project for both the tutors and the tutees, all of whom put forth a good faith effort and were able to see progress. For the next scholarly endeavor, formal assessments could be designed to align better with the goals and actual activities.

Early Literacy Project

Service learning was integrated into a children's literature course for elementary education majors at a small nonsectarian university. Pre-service teachers experienced the challenges and rewards of reading early childhood literature to very small children at a family literacy program. Pre-service teachers also had the opportunity to collaborate with a community organization and to interact with parents of 0-3 year old children. This Early Literacy Project promotes the vision of the university stated in the university mission statement "experiential learning that connects theory, practice, and reflection; engaged learning that connects the classroom, campus, and the community."

The principles that were followed in designing this project support what Strand, et al. (2003) in Principles and Practices: Community Based Scholarship and Higher Education, call community-based scholarship (CBR). They state, "Some practitioners have suggested that some kinds of service-learning are better than others at effecting student learning. Specifically, service-learning that stresses collective action, advocacy, critical analysis, and collaboration for the purpose of social change, the category into which CBR seems to fall, may well result in greater curricular, academic, and personal benefits for students than other forms of service-learning without those features" (Strand, et al,2003,. p. 120).

Creative Collaborations

BabyTALK (Teaching Activities for Learning and Knowledge), is a non-profit, community literacy organization with a national reputation. One of the family literacy programs run by BabyTALK is STEPS (Success Together Experiencing Play and Stimulation). This program is specifically for parents who have preschool children and are working on a GED. In addition, the program services parents who have preschool children and are learning English as a second language. Most of the 0-3 year old children enrolled in the program display delays of at least 30% in one or more areas of development; participate in early intervention programs, and work with a trans-disciplinary team of providers.

Multiple Models

All pre-service teachers in "Children's Literature" were required to fulfill 10 hours of service learning either in an elementary school setting or at the STEPS center. Ten out of 40 pre-service teachers (25%) chose to go to the STEPS center. All 40 pre-service teachers attended two workshops put on by the STEPS director and the faculty fellow. Class sessions with all 40 pre-service teachers focused on language acquisition. Learning the principles of the social constructivist theory was also combined with a discussion of how the principles would be applied at the STEPS center. Pre-service teachers' primary focus was to help preschool children build new communication skills, reinforce positive language patterns that were already acquired, and assist children practicing gross-motor maneuvers. As pre-service teachers learned how to assist a 3 year old child learning to talk, other trained professionals were present to support and encourage their work. This model of community-based service learning, piloted by this first group of pre-service teachers, will also be continued and sustained by the School of Education's newly approved major in early childhood education as it begins offering coursework in 2004-2005.

Integrative Scholarship

There are a number of aspects in service learning that are important to assess.

Dr. Andrew Furco of UC-Berkley, in a presentation to Illinois Campus Compact's State Farm Faculty Fellows in February, 2004, explained that service learning quality is assessed by whether or not the experience was intentional, meaningful, integrative and reflective. The service learning was set up as a clearly defined part of the Children's Literature course for the spring, 2004 semester. The syllabus was rewritten integrating service learning into the course, relating service learning specifically to literacy, collaborating meaningfully within the community, and reflecting afterwards.

The reflection tools (Hatcher & Bringle, 1996), classroom discussions, directed writings, and reflective essays, measured two objectives, "to increase teacher education student's knowledge of civic responsibility" and, "to increase teacher education student's knowledge of how to select and present early childhood literature." There were positive outcomes on these objectives based on the nature of the narrative statements made in the college students' midterm reflective essays and their directed responses in their final field reports. Attitudinal statements that reflected a strong sense of civic responsibility and engagement with underserved populations were also counted as positive. Out of ten students who did their service learning at STEPS, seven demonstrated positive outcomes on these two objectives.

Instead of taking a traditional approach to service learning scholarship and directly connecting the service learning to the academic outcomes, the Early Literacy Project takes a new approach to service learning scholarship. This new approach to service learning scholarship looks at service learning within the context of a course, but also combines that with looking at other mediating factors. Academic outcomes are then evaluated. According to Dr. Andrew Furco, University of California, Berkley (2004), the most consistent and strong findings in recent service learning scholarship show that a service learning experience that is a clearly defined part of a course will not only result in academic outcomes but also in other mediating factors such as increase in self-esteem, empowerment, pro-social behavior, motivation and engagement. The written narrative statements by participants that were used as evaluative results in The Early Literacy Project show strong examples of empowerment, motivation and engagement. The narrative statements also reflect evidence of course content being applied and synthesized at a fairly high level of understanding.

Early Literacy Bags in Special Education Project

The next project also involved a service learning experience with early literacy in special education at a mid-size public university. The project was designed to provide service and materials to families with young children who have disabilities. The focus of the project was the involvement of pre-service special education teachers in the creation of Literacy Bags to transport children's books. The project also provided for a parent-training workshop developed and conducted by the pre-service teachers.

It is especially important in the field of teacher training, that pre-service teachers engage in academic work integrated with service to the community because graduates will go on to assume professional roles that require a strong dedication and active participation in the community in which they work (Eyler & Giles,1997; Swick, 1999). This project promoted both intellectual and civic engagement by linking the work pre-service teachers do in their college courses to real-world problems and real world needs in education. The project was able to 1) fulfill an unmet community need, 2) better prepare pre-service special education teachers for their careers, and 3) encourage critical thinking and reflection on civic responsibility.

Creative Collaborations

This project was designed to provide service and materials to families with young children who have disabilities. The focus of the project was the involvement of pre-service special education teachers in the creation of Literacy Bags to transport children's books. The pre-service teachers created of 23 Literacy Bags for an early childhood special education program. It allowed pre-service special education teachers to work collaboratively with university faculty, early childhood teachers, and families of young children with special needs. Pre-service teachers observed in the early childhood special education program in which the Literacy Bags were donated. They had an opportunity to work with the children, ask questions about planned development of the literacy bag, and evaluate the appropriateness of their Literacy Bag design.

Multiple Models

Each college student chose a children's literature book and created a Literacy Bag to be used by parents in their homes to facilitate early reading and writing behaviors. The bags included: a bag, a children's book, and directions for activities to accompany the book. The bags were designed to meet the unique needs of children with disabilities by the incorporation of assistive technology, a focus on emergent language skills, and activities related to concepts of print.

The pre-service teachers also conducted a workshop for families to teach caregivers how to incorporate activities, which would enhance their child's emergent literacy skills, into their daily routine. The pre-service teachers planned, organized, and facilitated the workshop which focused on reading to children, doing developmentally appropriate activities to go along with the books, and creating a literacy rich environment in the home.

Because this project was grant supported, the grant was written exclusively by the faculty fellow. The project was chosen, designed, and a time line was created before the college course started. This essentially removed student voice from the project. In order to remedy that situation, the pre-service teachers

created their own teams related to the tasks that needed to be completed for the project. The pre-service teachers formed five teams. The teams were in charge of 1) contacting the early childhood teachers and setting up an observation for all of the pre-service teachers, 2) collecting receipts for the materials spent on Literacy Bags and monitoring finances for the project, 3) organizing publicity for the project, 4) designing the Family Workshop, 5) creating an evaluation form for the Literacy Bags using the course standards.

Integrative Scholarship

To evaluate the effectiveness of the project, Service Learning Reflection Journals were analyzed using qualitative measures. The pre-service teachers were able to reflect on their experiences and expand critical-thinking skills through the use of a Service Learning Reflection Journal and through class discussion. From the journals, themes were identified. There were three themes that emerged related to generalizing skills learned in this project to future teaching. The first theme related to the development of literacy bags. The pre-service teachers thought Literacy Bags were an effective way to stimulate emergent literacy skills in young children. The second theme related to collaboration with parents. Many of the college students felt especially successful in helping parents develop their skills in working with their young children who have disabilities. They also felt positive about the ability to work with parents in the workshop. The parents who attended were eager to gain information and enjoyed the positive atmosphere of the workshop. The final theme related to service learning. Many of the college students who plan to teach students at the secondary level were particularly interested in service learning as a way to embed learning standards into community service. The pre-service teachers acknowledged the usefulness of service learning to increase student motivation and to develop a sense of efficacy.

Action Scholarship in English and Psychology Project

The final project is distinctively different from the other projects. At this small liberal arts college, two professors collaborated on an innovative, integrated teaching experience that includes a service learning project on high school risky driving behaviors.

Creative Collaborations

In this project, the faculty members were able to merge collaborative teaching that included a service learning project that in turn informs their own scholarly scholarship interests in the areas of sports psychology and gender studies, respectively. The project grew out of a discussion about pedagogical challenges to motivating students in courses that build scholarship and writing skills in meaningful ways. Students often divorce what they do in the classroom from real world applicability. Specifically, in some courses, students write surveys or papers without thinking about audience and purpose. These assignments were often viewed as a task done simply for a grade. Although the building of these skills is necessary and important, of course, by combining a real-world community service project it engaged the students in the scholarship and writing process. The original project involved three English composition classes and one psychology tests and measurements class and one high school. However, after some publicity about the project, three other high schools asked to be included and became involved in the survey. In addition, a sport psychology and social psychology class also used the survey results for classroom projects. In sum, two professors, six college classes, and over 150 high school students from four different high schools were involved in the project.

Multiple Models

The English classes wrote their initial scholarship papers on risky youth driving behaviors (e.g., speeding, distractions, drinking, etc.); the psychology students then looked at this scholarship as they wrote, analyzed the surveys distributed in the high schools, and finally, the psychology class provided results to the English students to incorporate into their final papers. In addition, the students in both classes prepared final reports for a website and for future classes. Two additional classes (sport psychology and social psychology) then utilized the results of the previous semester's work to develop fact sheets and persuasive video messages. The resulting fact sheets and video were distributed to local high schools to be used in driving educational programs.

Integrative Scholarship

The results from this project are threefold. First, the results from the survey are useful for the high schools as they develop educational programs to inform students about speeding, distractions, and speeding. Second, these results will be useful for the faculty members in their future scholarly work. And third, pedagogical assessment results provided data on student learning. this project was assessed. Specifically, using the principles of effective teaching postulated by Chickering and Gamson (1991), a survey was designed to assess students' perceptions of the project. With appropriate assessment (Angelo & Cross, 1993; Brookfield, 1995), the results of this project reflect a meaningful learning experience for college students, a useful service to high schools, and rich scholarship data from the actual surveys and pedagogical assessments for the faculty members.

In conclusion, rather than viewing teaching, service, and scholarship as three distinctive, perhaps even hierarchically opposing entities, this new paradigm establishes a holistic, collaborative, and meaningful learning unit. The five State Farm Faculty Fellows from the Illinois Campus Compact member institutions developed unique projects that exhibit collaboration, models, and scholarship findings. On each campus, in addition to significant learning experiences for the students involved and service to the

community partner, there was also an increase of service learning visibility on each campus. As part of the grant, each faculty fellow was responsible for a service learning workshop on campus. Moreover, the faculty fellows presented at a service learning conference at Rockford College.

Developing the appropriate models, finding sustainable collaborations, and assessing the results are challenging. Thanks to funding sources such as the State Farm Insurance Foundations and Illinois Campus Compact, resources are available to help with this pursuit. The positive impact of the recognition of the pedagogical value of service learning, the institutional understanding of service the learning, the collaborations, models, and scholarship results make the effort worthwhile. Service learning has great potential to address contemporary issues as highlighted in the Greater Expectations report from the Association of American Colleges and Universities: "Quality liberal education (...) has the strongest impact when studies reach beyond the classroom to the larger community, asking students to apply their developing analytical skills and ethical judgment to concrete problems in the world around them, and to connect theory with the insights gained from practice" (www.greaterexpecations.org). As the report concludes, "collaboration and concerted action" are the keys to improving education. Five Faculty Fellow projects in Illinois are doing just that.

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If you have knowledge, let others light their candles at it.

– Margaret Fuller

Academic and Non-Academic Predictors Of College Student Retention

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the academic and non-academic factors that predict college retention. Archival data was collected from 299 former students at a small, private women's college. Academic factors (such as high school grade point average and standardized test scores) and non-academic factors (such as socioeconomic status and number of low-risk college courses completed) were measured in an effort to predict retention. Results showed that high school grade point average was a significant predictor of college retention. In addition, the number of low-risk courses a student completed in college predicted retention. These findings suggest that offering students extra services in high-risk courses may increase student retention.

One of the most important issues facing colleges and universities is the high attrition rate among students (Kahn & Nauta, 2001). In recent years, studies have shown that one fourth of freshmen do not continue past their first year (Kahn & Nauta, 2001; Kirst, 2004); while 40% fail to graduate altogether (DeBerard, Spielmans & Julka, 2004; Kirst, 2004). Attrition harms the student as well as the academic institution. Students miss out on the benefit of a college education and colleges experience financial burdens directly related to costs of recruitment efforts, lost tuition, room and board, and donations from alumni (DeBerard et. al, 2004; Lau, 2003). For these reasons, many colleges have invested in retention programs (Dale & Zych, 1996). However, the attrition rate in colleges has not changed appreciably in many years (Barefoot, 2004). While academic factors (e.g., standardized test scores) may be reliable predictors of student retention in college, non-academic factors (e.g., parental socioeconomic status) also play a role (Kahn & Nauta, 2001). Knowledge of these non-academic factors may help college employees to directly target those students who require extra assistance or attention, thereby increasing retention (Larose, Robertson, Roy, & Legault, 1998). The purpose of the present study is to identify academic and non-academic factors that predict college student retention.

Academic and non-academic factors have been associated with college success. Studies have determined that high school grade point average (G.P.A.) and standardized test scores (e.g., ACT scores) are reliable predictors of college success (Boatwright & Egidio, 2003; DeBerard et. al, 2004; Fass & Tubman, 2002; Johnson & Beck, 1988; Kahn & Nauta, 2001; Larose, et al., 1998; Szafran, 2001). However, these scores account for only 25% of the variance in college retention (Wolfe & Johnson, 1995), with 75% of the variance presumably related to non-academic factors (Tross, Harper, Osher, & Kneidinger, 2000). In light of this research, college personnel often consider academic factors when making acceptance decisions. When colleges raise their academic standards for incoming students, attrition rates should decline somewhat. However, because academic factors account for so little variance, colleges that rely solely on academic factors will likely find it difficult to substantially influence retention.

Non-academic factors such as socioeconomic status and types of courses students enroll in could also influence college retention. Students who continue to be financially dependent on their parents are three times less likely to drop out in their first year (Boyer, 2005). Furr and Elling (2002) found that students who worked longer hours because they had few financial resources were more likely to drop out of college. The types of classes students take when they enroll in college may also influence their retention.

Szafran (2001) showed that students who enroll in high-risk courses (classes with a high percentage of D's and F's) were less likely to be retained after the first year than students who enrolled in low-risk courses. By contrast, students who took more low-risk courses were more likely to remain at the college after their first year, despite the fact that they tended to enroll in more credit hours per semester (Kimweli & Richards, 1999; Szafran, 2001). Thus, research supports the consideration of non-academic factors in addition to academic factors when attempting to identi-

-fy which students are likely to be retained in college.

The present study examines academic and non-academic predictors of college student retention. The first hypothesis is that high school experience (G.P.A. and courses taken) and standardized test scores will correlate with retention. The second hypothesis is that students who show high socioeconomic status (measured by parental occupation and need for financial aid) will show higher retention. The third hypothesis is that the number of low-risk courses that students enroll in during college will be positively associated with retention.

Methods

Participants

The authors collected archival data from 299 former students at a Midwestern, private women's college. The college was founded in 1833, enrolls approximately 500 students/year, and is located in a rural area. The data included all students who matriculated between 1994 and 1999. The authors gathered data from the Office of the Registrar at the college. Ninety-seven percent of students identified themselves as female and 3% identified as male (*Mean* age = 18.67, *SD* = 1.06) on their applications. Eighty-three percent of students identified themselves as Caucasian, 7% as African-American, 3% as Hispanic, 2% as Native American/Alaskan Native, 1% as Asian, and 1% as other (3% did not identify an ethnic group). Seventy-eight percent of students indicated that they would require financial aid.

Procedure

The authors recorded data from student application files, final high school transcripts, and final college transcripts. Demographic measures included gender, ethnicity, and age. From high school transcripts, the authors recorded the number of math and English courses completed and G.P.A. American College Test (ACT) scores served as a standardized test indicator. The study defined retention in college as number of college credit hours completed. Socioeconomic status was defined as parental occupation and whether or not the student indicated a need for financial aid on the college application. Observers scored parents' occupations on a seven-point scale modeled after the Hollingshead Index of Social Position (Hollingshead & Redlich, 1958). A mean occupation score was calculated when the student listed an occupation for each parent. The number of low-risk courses completed in college was also recorded. Observers defined low-risk courses as "skills" courses (e.g. dance, music, theatre, equestrian). Internal institutional data has determined that over 50% of people taking these courses receive A grades.

Results

The first hypothesis in this study was that high school G.P.A., courses taken in high school, and standardized test scores will correlate with retention. The authors analyzed this hypothesis using a linear regression in which the dependent variable was number of credit hours completed, and the independent variables were high school G.P.A., ACT score, and number of high school English and math courses. The regression equation was significant, $F(4,273) = 2.92$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = .04$. High school G.P.A. was the only variable that significantly predicted college credit hours, $\beta = 14.16$, $t(277) = 2.51$, $p < .05$. Contrary to hypothesis, ACT score, number of high school English courses, and number of high school math courses did not significantly predict college credit hours completed.

Hypothesis two predicted that students who have a high socioeconomic status, measured by parental occupation, would show higher retention. To analyze this hypothesis, the authors computed a correlation on parental occupation score and the total number of credit hours completed in college. There was no significant relationship between these variables. This analysis also included a one-way ANOVA using need for financial aid (scored as yes or no) as the independent variable and credit hours completed as the dependent variable. Need for financial aid was not significantly related to number of credit hours completed. Therefore, the results failed to support the second hypothesis.

The third hypothesis was that the number of low-risk courses that students enroll in during college will be positively associated with retention. To analyze this hypothesis, the authors performed a bivariate correlation on the number of low-risk courses taken and the credit hours completed in college. The number of low-risk courses was significantly associated with credit hours completed, $r(244) = .50$, $p < .001$. Therefore, the higher the number of low-risk courses taken, the higher the number of college credit hours completed.

Discussion

Results of this study showed that the number of low-risk courses a student completed positively predicted college retention. Similarly, Szafran (2001) indicated that college students who enrolled in a high number of low-risk courses were retained longer than students who enrolled in high-risk courses. These findings indicate that retention might be affected by offering extra services for students in high-risk courses. One successful program that targets high-risk courses is Supplemental Instruction (Ogden, Thompson, Russell, & Simons, 2003). Supplemental Instruction offers voluntary peer-led study sessions for high-risk courses. By targeting the course, rather than the student, this program avoids the stigma that might be associated with labeling a student "at-risk." Advisors may also be able to increase student retention if they initially advise students to enroll in low-risk courses. Although students may eventually have to complete high-risk courses to fulfill degree requirements, under some circumstances taking such courses could be delayed until the risk of student attrition declines in the junior and senior years (Seymour & Hewitt, 1997).

This study predicted that high socioeconomic status would result in greater retention. The data did not support this hypothesis; parental occupation and need for financial aid were not associated with retention. These findings contrast with other studies showing that retention is positively associated with socioeconomic status (Braunstein, Mcgrath & Pescatrice, 2000; Stoecker, et. al, 1988). Yorke (1999) found that students cited financial difficulties as one of the top three reasons why they left an academic institution. One explanation for the lack of association between socioeconomic status and retention may have been the measures of socioeconomic status. This study measured self-reported parents' occupations as opposed to student wages or income. Further research measuring actual income may reveal that socioeconomic status affects retention.

This study found that high school G.P.A. positively predicted college retention. Previous research (Boatwright & Egidio, 2003; DeBerard et. al, 2004; Fass & Tubman, 2002; Johnson & Beck, 1988; Kahn & Nauta, 2001; Larose, et al., 1998; Szafran, 2001) has similarly shown that high school G.P.A. and standardized test scores are reliable predictors of college success. Contrary to previous findings (Kahn & Nauta, 2001), results showed that academic factors accounted for only a small proportion of the variance in retention. It may be the case that academic factors are weaker predictors of retention in women's colleges than in coeducational institutions. In fact, Stoecker, Pascarella & Wolfle (1988) showed that the predictors of college retention differ for men and women, with high school achievement being a weaker predictor of retention for women. Given the finding that women are more likely than men to leave college in the first year (Boyer, 2005), further research on predictors of persistence among female students is warranted. Such research should explore the role of academic predictors in women's institutions in comparison to similar coeducational institutions.

There are two main limitations to this study. First, the authors used archival data and had little control over the reliability of the recording system. Second, the data may have failed to show that standardized test (ACT) scores predicted retention because the data on standardized test scores was incomplete causing the sample size to be somewhat lower for this analysis. Despite these limitations, the findings of this study indicate that providing extra assistance for students in high-risk courses may be one way to increase college student retention.

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External Assets and the Development Of Resiliency Among Urban American High School Students

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Abstract

This study investigated the relationships between measures of external assets and the subsequent development of resiliency based on a diverse sample of urban students from a Midwestern high school. A disproportionately higher percentages of White students reported high scores in variables that had significant impact on their resiliency. These findings prompted an assessment of research on the role played by hardships in the development of resiliency, although the data does not provide direct measure of hardship. Implications for policy are also examined.

Urban youth today face increasing challenges such as high poverty, unsafe neighborhoods, academic achievement, and learning a second language. At the same time, the support systems that should help them meet and surmount those challenges are rapidly disappearing (Miller, Leslie-Toogood, & Kafe, 2005). Research has identified resiliency as one of the factors contributing to youth development and perseverance through the challenges (Henderson & Milstein, 2003; Thomsen, 2002). Henderson and Milstein (2003) define resiliency as, "the capacity to spring back, rebound, successfully adapt in the face of adversity, and develop social, academic, and vocational competence despite exposure to severe stress or simply to the stress that is inherent in today's world" (p. 7). WestEd (2000) defined resiliency as the positive developmental outcomes of external assets. WestEd identified six variables that constitute resiliency. They include cooperation and communication, empathy, problem-solving, self-efficacy, self-awareness, and goals and aspirations.

Resiliency as an approach to student development and schooling involves individual strengths, competencies, and positive social attitudes (Osher & Fleischman, 2005; Thomsen, 2002; Benard, 1996). The development of resiliency has been associated with the social supports and opportunities experienced by students in their home, peer, school, and community environments (external assets) (Osher & Fleiscman, 2005; WestEd, 2000). The assets are cultivated by the presence of caring relations, high expectations, and opportunities to participate in meaningful activities that engage students' innate abilities (WestEd, 2000; Benard, 1996). Hanson and Austin (2002) indicated that caring relations, high expectation and opportunities to engage in meaningful activities were consistently related to low levels of involvement in risk behaviors, high levels of academic achievement, and positive youth development. Wang, Haertel, & Walberg, (1997) identified high expectations and role modeling as key protective factors that mitigate against the likelihood of academic failure particularly for those students in difficult life circumstances. Osher and Fleischman (2005) observed that caring connections, positive behavioral supports, and social and emotional learning were essential in a school culture. And Finn, Willert, and Marable (2003) observed that teens with low attachments to school are more likely to be vulnerable as they are less likely to realize academic success and more likely to be delinquent in behavior. Based on these findings, it may be assumed that students who experience environments rich in positive external assets are also likely to exhibit adaptive characteristics and competencies that enable them to self regulate in their practices and decisions (Solomon, Battistich, Watson, Schape, & Lesis, 2000; Wang, Haertel, & Walberg, 1998).

Trueba (2002) disagrees with the hypothesis that only positive external assets may lead to the development of resiliency. He argued that hardships may also generate resiliency associated with the ability to adapt and function effectively in school and society. Hardships were described as the difficulties of having to master different languages, crossing racial and ethnic boundaries, and overcoming poverty. Because of these hardships, the students develop a psychological flexibility necessary to self regulate, to pass for, or assume different identities for purposes of

survival. This flexibility according to Trueba (2002) is also resiliency. But it is "resiliency associated with the ability to endure hardships and overcome obstacles (that) will clearly be recognized as a new cultural capital that will be crucial for success in a modern diversified society" (p. 7).

This study focused on the effects of positive external assets on the development of resiliency among urban high school students. The research question that provided focus for this inquiry was: How do students of different backgrounds in an urban high school differ on the dimensions and impact of external assets on the development of resiliency?

Method

A survey research design was utilized to investigate the research question. High school students from an urban school district in the Midwest were identified for this study. The school was purposely chosen because it was in a unit district with grades from pre-kindergarten through twelfth grade. Students in this school were therefore exposed to the same resources. Students were asked to respond anonymously to a resilience questionnaire. Of the 559 students eligible to participate, 522 (93%) eligible responses were received. Four hundred and fifty two questionnaires provided usable data. The sample included 228 female and 224 males. Three hundred and sixty (75%) of the students were White, 51 (11%) were Hispanic/Latino, and 41 (9%) were African American. The ethnic make up of the school was 78% white, and 10 % Hispanic, 7 % African American, 4 % Asian American.

Measures. *The 56-item resiliency questionnaire, the Healthy Kids Resilience Module* (WestEd, 2000) was used to measure 17 assets subdivided into the subscale concepts of external assets (home, peer, school and community) and resiliency (cooperation and communication, self-efficacy, empathy, problem solving, self-awareness, goals and aspirations). The Healthy Kids Resilience Module (HKRM) was used because it assesses strengths, competencies, and positive social and healthy attitudes and behaviors exhibited by youth. Constantine, Benard and Diaz (1999) reported a reliability alpha of the HKRM at .80 for external assets and .84 for resiliency.

Students were asked to indicate for each item on the module how much a statement applied to them. Response choices were: 4-very much true, 3-pretty much true, 2-a little true, 1-not at all true. The following score categories were derived: High- students with average score 9, Moderate- students with average score between least 6 and 8.9, and Low- students with average score below 6 (WestEd, 2000). Table 1 shows the external assets and their measures while Table 2 shows resiliency and their measures (Constantine, Benard & Diaz, 1999).

Findings

Descriptive statistics (means and percentages) and independent t-test were computed to compare data between White students and, African American and Hispanic students. Linear regression analyses were used to examine the effects of external assets on resiliency for each group of students. An Alpha level of .05 was used to determine significance. Although these findings enhanced the understanding of the interface of ethnicity, external assets and resiliency, they may not be generalized as the results were from a convenient sample.

Survey Findings on External Assets and Resilience

The mean scores on external assets and resiliency are presented in Table 3. The study found significant mean score differences between White students and, African American and Hispanic students (t =2.150; $p<$ .05) in favor of white students in the measure of external assets among the students in the study. External assets mean scores of African American and Hispanic students were also lower than the sample mean. The Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Post Hoc analyses indicated that White students had significantly higher mean scores in peer relations than Hispanic respondents (t =-2.650; $p<$ .01). While only White students scored a high mean (9.3) on external assets, all groups (White, African American and Hispanic students) in the study scored high mean on resiliency.

Inter correlation analyses indicated significant positive correlations between external assets and resiliency for the sample and for all the groups in the study (Table 5). However, the study revealed differences in the percentages of students scoring high on external assets by ethnicity (Table 4). Lager percentages of White students scored high on external assets and the subsets compared to African American, Hispanic, and the sample. Conversely, a larger percentage of African American (79%) and Hispanic American students (74%) scored high on resiliency compared to White students (72%) and the sample (70).

Linear regression analysis was used to identify which subsets of external assets best predicted resiliency for each group (White, African American, Hispanic) of students. Table 6 presents the results of the regression analyses for each of the groups. For each regression, all four components of external assets were included in the equation (home, peer, school, community). All four subsets of external assets were significant predictors of resiliency for the sample. Home, peer and community were significant predictors of resiliency amongst White students and explained 55% of the variance (Table 6). Home was the only significant predictor of resiliency among African American students while none of the subsets of external assets was a significant predictor of resiliency among Hispanic students. The regression analyses explained 45% and 46% of the variance among African American and Hispanic students respectively.

The study found that a disproportionately higher percentage of White students compared to African American and Hispanic students scored high on variables that were significant predictors of their resiliency. While over 70% of White students scored high on

each of the significant predictor variables, 60% of African American students scored high on the only variable that was a significant predictor of their resiliency. Peer relations were the best predictor of resiliency among White students and the least effective predictor of resiliency among African American and Hispanic students. The study indicated that although peer group had the lowest correlation (Table 5) and was the least predictor (negative) of resiliency among African American students (Table 6), it had the largest percentage of students reporting a high score (65%). For both African American and Hispanic American students, lower percentages of students scored high on variables that were more effective predictors of resiliency and vise versa.

Discussion and Conclusion

Overall the study found a positive correlation between external assets and resiliency among the sample and each of the groups. When the data was disaggregated by the ethnic/racial groups, the study found significant differences. This finding is relevant to educational achievement because, according to Griffith (2002), the achievement gap between white and minority students may be associated with 14 factors that included school/classroom environment, peer relations, educational opportunities at home and in the community. The findings predicted that attempts by educators to close the achievement gap will fail if these educational and societal factors are not considered in the process of educating children.

Based on Trueba's (2002) argument, we believed that race/ethnicity influenced the nature of the relationship between external assets and resiliency. Students from minority backgrounds African American and Hispanic are more likely to experience hardships (mastery of different languages, crossing racial and ethnic boundaries, and overcoming poverty). We found differences in the levels of external assets by mean scores and percentages of students reporting high on external assets across racial/ethnic groups in favor of white students. We also found differences in the levels of resiliency across racial/ethnic groups in favor of Black/Hispanic students.

In particular we found that external assets did not predict resiliency among Hispanics while home was the only significant positive predictor of resiliency among African American students. Unlike White students, lower percentages of African American and Hispanic students scored high on variables that were highly correlated to, or predicted their resiliency. Also, external assets based on caring relations, high expectations and opportunities to engage in meaningful activities explained less variance among minority students (45%) than it did among White students (55%). These findings led to the conclusion that positive external assets only do not explain the development of resiliency. Going by Trueba's argument, hardships may also explain resiliency. It is therefore logical to claim that positive external assets and hardships, independently or in combination may contribute to the development of resiliency. This may be the reason that Black and Hispanic students reported higher mean scores with larger percentage of students scoring high in resiliency and lower mean scores in external assets based on the WestEd survey and definition of external assets.

Trueba (2002) explained that hardships like nuances of racism, language proficiency, and poverty, more commonly found among African American and Hispanic students, lead to different experiences. These have not diminished the development of resiliency among African American and Hispanic students. Trueba (2002) argued that there is "an intimate relation between people's capacity to endure hardships, challenges, and difficult situations in life, and their ability to redefine themselves in order to function effectively in new social, cultural, linguistic, and economic contexts" (p. 8). These social contexts, as reported by Kozol (1991), are predictors of success or failure for a large number of students. Those who are able to redefine themselves and overcome hardships can be said to have developed resiliency and are more likely to self regulate and are likely to less at risk of school failure or engage in risky behaviors. However, as Trueba (2002) cautions us, that this resiliency may be used for survival not academic achievement. He found that nuances of racism are some of the most draining factors in academia and academic achievement and resiliency developed out of hardship may be viewed as less functional for academic achievement and more functional for immediate economic survival. Although resiliency based on hardships may be advantageous for survival, schools need to recognize this it as new cultural capital that may be transformed into opportunities.

Research has shown that White students reported larger social networks and more interactions with perceived sources of support than Hispanic/Latino students (Kenny & Stryker, 1994). White students also developed the most rational plans in school and career because knowledge concerning maximally efficient means for achievement was more prevalent in their environment (Hoelter, 1982). On the other hand, Getz (1977) found that environmental conditions contributed more to lower achievement scores of Hispanic students. Their teachers were often perceived as uncaring, biased and insensitive to students' cultures at home. They were also seen as lacking the necessary sociocultural capital to succeed at the level of mainstream population. The institutionalization of such attitudes in places providing external assets (school, community, peers, home) may have led to lower scores on external assets in this study.

Implications for Leaders and Society

Educators are taking stock of 50 years since the *Brown v. Board of Education* decision. On the whole, equal access has not led to equal achievement while school segregation is on the increase (Kozol, 1991; Kozol, 2000). Local communities, state policymakers, and the federal government have kept

equal achievement on their agendas, as expressed in such efforts as "No Child Left Behind." However, these efforts must be all inclusive - beyond schools. Schools should expand the operational definition of education to include the role of external assets in the context of positive external assets and hardships in relation to youth development and learning. All students should get the benefits of positive external assets as these have been found to have a positive correlation with resiliency and academic achievement.

Schools should assess student external assets, and use these to understand and guide issues of discipline, high-risk behavior, and intervention. Educators should recognize that although some students' resiliency may be based, in part, on ability to endure hardships as opposed to positive external assets, it is cultural capital that may be crucial for these students' success and self regulation. This finding suggests the need for complementary approach to schooling (cultural capital); one that augments external assets, especially for African American and Hispanic American students, while recognizing the impact of hardships on their development.

This study has developed a case for the need of a comprehensive approach to youth development, one that requires action by all stakeholders in the community. School leaders and policy-makers should continuously examine their practices, relations with students, and pay closer attention to the connections between positive assets, hardships, resilience and academic achievement.

Table 1
External Assets and Their Measures

External Asset	Measures
Home	Caring relations (Someone interested in my schoolwork, listens to me, and talks with me about my problems). High expectations (Someone who wants me to do my best, believes that I will be a success and expects me to follow rules). Meaningful participation (I help make decisions, do fun things or go fun places with adults and do things at home that make a difference).
Peer	Caring relations (I have a friend who really cares about me, talks with me about my problems, helps me when I am having a hard time). High expectations (My friends try to do what is right, do well in school, get into a lot of trouble).
School	Caring relations (Teacher or adult who cares about me, notices when I am not there, listens to me when I have something to say). High expectations (Teacher/adult who tells me when I do a good job, wants me to do my best, believes that I will be a success). Meaningful participation (I help decide class activities and rules, do interesting activities at school, do things in my school that make a difference).
Community	Caring relations (Adult who really cares about me, who notices when I am upset and who I trust). High expectations (Adult who tells me when I do a good job, wants me to do my best and believes that I will be a success). Meaningful participation (I take lessons in music, art, sports or hobby or are a member of a club, I help other).

Table 2
Resilience and Their Measures

Resilience	Measures
Cooperation and Communication	I can work with others who have different opinions than mine, work with other students my age, and stand up for myself without putting others down.
Self-efficacy	I can work on my problems, do most things if I try, do many things well
Empathy	I feel bad when someone gets their feelings hurt, try to understand what others go through, and try to understand what other people feel and think.
Problem Solving	When I need help, I find someone to talk with, know where to go for help with a problem, and try to work out problems by talking about them.
Self-awareness	There is a purpose to my life, I understand my moods and feelings, and I understand why I do what I do.
Goals and Aspirations	I have goals and plans for the future, I plan to graduate from high school, I plan to go to college or some other school after high school.

Table 3
Mean Score of External Assets and Resiliency Scores by Ethnicity

	High Mean Scores	Moderate Mean Scores
External Assets	Sample (9.2) White Americans (9.3)	African American (8.8) Hispanic Americans (8.8)
Resilience	Sample (9.6) African American (9.8) Hispanic Americans (9.5) White Americans (9.6)	

Table 4
Percentage of Students Scoring H (High) by Troups on External Assets and Resilience

	External Assets	Home	Peer	School	Community	Resiliency
Groups (n)						
Sample (452)	60	68	70	50	62	70
African A (41)	52	60	65	46	57	79
Hispanic (51)	45	60	53	40	53	74
White (360)	73	70	72	52	74	72

Table 5
Correlations between Resiliency and External Assets by Groups

	External Assets	Home	Peer	School	Community
Sample	.707**	.586**	.612**	.617**	.619**
African American	.668**	.704**	.481**	.599**	.554**
Hispanic	.674**	.545**	.447**	.682**	.628**
White	.714**	.591**	.645**	.615**	.618**

**p<,01

Table 6
Regression Models Predicting Resiliency

	Variable	B	SE	b	T	Adj. R	F
Sample	Home	.163	.038	.189	4.301**	.367	133.34
	Peer	.280	.033	.333	8.538**		
	School	.101	.050	.129	2.018*		
	Community	.173	.048	.219	3.634**		
African American	Home	.364	.126	.656	2.877**	.446	8.25
	Peer	-.064	.116	-.105	-.550		
	School	.069	.158	.120	.434		
	Community	.027	.145	.044	.187		
Hispanic American	Home	.178	.099	.205	1.789	.464	15.88
	Peer	.128	.097	.153	1.326		
	School	.242	.150	.294	1.618		
	Community	.262	.176	.303	1,489		
White	Home	.157	.045	.176	3.529**	547	109.518
	Peer	.323	.039	.377	8.393**		
	School	.048	.057	.061	.845		
	Community	.211	.053	.271	3.993**		

* p<.05; ** p<.01

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Mankind . . . grows beyond its work, walks up the stairs of its concepts, emerges ahead of its accomplishments.

– John Steinbeck

Students' Perceptions of Faculty's Teaching Ability Based on Their Ethnicity, Accent, And Academic Discipline

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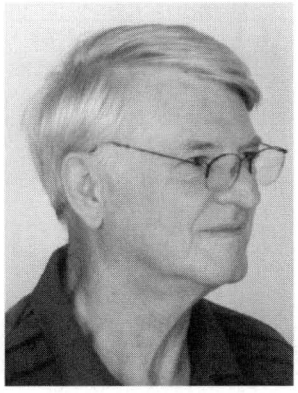

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Abstract

This study examined 236 college students' perceptions of professors' teaching competence based on the professors' ethnicity, the presence of an accent during lectures, and academic discipline. The study found that European-American and African-Americans professors were perceived to be more effective than Asian-American professors in teaching effectiveness regardless of academic discipline. The findings of this study suggest that students do have preconceptions about the effectiveness of faculty based on their ethnicity. Especially, Asian professors were evaluated significantly lower than European and African professors.

Introduction

The increased employment of non-Americans on campuses throughout the country reflects a growing ethnic diversity among professors in social science colleges. While more and more minority professors are entering the fields of social sciences and education, students who are majoring in these fields tend to be white Americans rather than foreign or minority students. When these students are enrolled in courses taught by professors with ethnic and linguistic backgrounds different than their own, some students unfortunately tend to lack respect, are ready to criticize, give lower course evaluations, and encounter some level of discomfort, tension and conflict (Boute, 1999; Hendrix, 1995; McGowan, 2000).

However, foreign and minority professors in the colleges of science, mathematics, and engineering are as well accepted as white professors in the college community by other faculty and their students (Connors, 1987). Harrington, Southerland, and Johnson (1993) reported that the majority of the non-American teaching faculty at the science colleges migrated to the United States from Asia, India, and Western Europe and over half of the graduate degrees are conferred on non-American students in these colleges. Many students and professors in these colleges are foreigners and share similar cultural and ethnic backgrounds that enable them to comfortably relate to each other.

To determine if students at a social sciences college in an urban mid-Atlantic university valued diversity among faculty, this study examined their perceptions of professors varied in their ethnic background, linguistic background, and academic discipline. The purpose of this study was to investigate whether foreign and minority professors are perceived as being competent as white professors. This study examined whether the students in a college of education rated professors differently on course evaluations. Specifically, this study addressed the following questions.

1. Do students' perceptions of professors differ based on the professors' ethnicity?
2. Do students' perceptions toward professors differ when the professors are speaking English with a foreign accent?
3. Do students' perceptions toward professors differ depending on the content of the course, specifically computer science versus reading education?
4. Does the professors' ethnicity interact with either speaking with an accent or the academic discipline in determining student's perceptions toward professors?

Review of Literature

Diverse learning environment adds richness and quality in cross-cultural interactions, which play a significant role in students' intellectual, social, and personal development (Adams, 2002; Boylan, Sutton, and Anderson, 2003; Chang, 1999; Pascarella, Palmer, Moye, and Pierson, 2001; Smith et al., 1997; Terenzini, Cabrera, Cokbeck, Bjorklund, and Parente (2001). The evidence from research conducted over the past decade is quite clear that ethnic and cultural diversity allows professors and students to retain their personal identities, to have a sense of belonging, to take pride in their own heritage, to foster an appreciation of diversity among the entire college community, and to maintain a society where all people are equally respected, which symbolize the society's democratic commitment to human dignity and equality. Diversity in higher education makes a strong positive contribution to student retention, intellectual self-confidence, social self-confidence, and satisfaction with the college experience, which help students to be better prepared to work in a diverse work force (Lee, 2002; Smith, 2004; Yates, 2000).

Nevertheless, there are some cases where minority professors face the reality of biased treatment and are perceived as less qualified as a result of some students' and professors' biased perspectives. Harrington, et al. (1993) reported that students assessed non-American professors as less competent than American professors in their course evaluations and they are appeared to be biased toward their professors' teaching ability. In a similar study, Neves & Sanyal (1991) found non-American professors were more likely to be perceived positively by non-white and older students, and students with higher GPAs. Foreign professors might, therefore, be considered more effective and be professionally satisfied in institutions located in cosmopolitan areas where students and faculty members are culturally diverse or where the student population is older.

Tantalizingly, Galbraith (2002) found that ethnic and racial minorities at social science colleges, especially at older universities with a smaller population of minority students and professors, face discrimination. Race and ethnicity were viewed as a potential source of conflict in the relationship between students and professors in several studies (Black, Maki, and Nunn, 1997; Cracraft, 1988; Gladstein & Mailick, 1986; Goodwin & Nacht, 1983; Lee, Adb-Ella, & Burks, 1981; Nisbett & Wilson, 1977; Penny & White, 1998).

Jacobs and Friedman (1988) observed that some students with biased perceptions about instructors' teaching ability based on the professors' ethnic and linguistic backgrounds try to avoid registering for courses taught by foreign professors. These students may not benefit as much from the course as non-biased students (Smith and Necessary, 1994). Thus, it is critical for students to have unbiased opinions about the course and professor before experiencing and interacting with professors who have different ethnic backgrounds. Kadushin (1985, pp. 164-165) claimed that learning could take place best when the nature of such interaction is positive, and when professor and student accept each other's differences, and are comfortably relaxed with each other. In this positive and unbiased learning environment, the level of student participation in learning is higher and anxiety is lower, which in turn facilitates learning. Based on the reviewed literature, the authors concluded that some students and professors in higher education still need to make an effort to appreciate the unique contributions of all cultures in classes and to embrace different perspectives from ethnically and culturally diverse peoples. University administrators still need to maximize equality of opportunity for all individuals and minority groups to pursue academic excellences in various academic fields on campus, and facilitate the implementation of diversity and the enhancement of human dignity and democratic ideals.

Methods

Participants

The participants in this study were 236 undergraduate and graduate students enrolled in ten randomly selected education courses in a college of education located in an urban area in Southeastern Virginia. Of the 236 participating students, 195 were female and 41 were male students. The participants' ethnic backgrounds were 194 Caucasian, 37 African-American, 1 Hispanic, and 4 Asian/Pacific Islanders. Total number of full-time instructional faculty employed in the college was 79, which includes 66 Whites, 6 Blacks, 2 Asians, 2 Hispanics, 2 American Indians, and 1 non-resident alien.

The college of education believes it is important to have a student body that is diverse and actively seeks students from a broad range of diverse groups.

Instrument

A student questionnaire was used to assess students' perceptions of faculty competence as a function of ethnicity, use of an accent, and academic discipline in a higher education setting. The questionnaire consisted of a scenario, biographic questions, and seven course evaluation questions, and was coded with a three digit number appearing at the top of each page to reflect the three independent variables as shown in the table 1. Three independent variables (ethnicity, use of accent, and academic discipline) were used to create twelve different scenarios based on 12 imaginary professors. Although each scenario included three identical independent variables, they were varied to reflect 3x2x2 factorial design with instructors' ethnicity (Asian, African, and European), use of an accent (Yes and No), and academic discipline (Reading Education and Computer Science). For example, a scenario with a code number 111 depicted an imaginary professor as follows: "Dr. Kaneko was born in an Asian country but received a doctorate degree from an American University. Dr. Kaneko speaks English fluently but does have a pronounced accent. Students must listen closely to understand Dr. Kaneko's

lectures. Dr. Kaneko specializes in teaching Methods of Reading Instruction."

Table 1. Independent Variables

Ethnicity	Use of an accent	Field of expertise
1. Asian 2. African 3. European	1. Yes 2. No	1. Reading Education 2. Computer Science

Twenty evaluation sheets were made for each of the 12 imaginary professors. Thus, there were a total of 240 evaluation sheets. The use of fictitious professors was appropriate to control extraneous variables, such as, grade expectations, instructors' appearance, personality conflicts, lifestyle, beliefs, amount of required work, and negative class environment, which might contribute to course ratings.

The dependent variables consisted of seven course evaluation items that were used by the university to assess teaching competence. Question 1 addressed overall teaching effectiveness as an instructor. Question 2 addressed the instructor's ability to communicate ideas effectively. Question 3 addressed the instructor's consistency/punctuality in meeting class and using allotted time. Question 4 addressed the instructor's helpfulness, sensitivity, responsiveness to all students' needs. Question 5 addressed the instructor's overall quality of professors' course. Question 6 addressed how much they have learned or benefited from an instructor. Finally, question 7 addressed the instructor's organization, structure, and clarity of requirements. Each of the seven questions in the evaluation sheet has five ratings ordered from A = poor, B = acceptable, C = good, D = very good, and E = excellent.

Procedure

The questionnaire was passed out to students who were taking education courses in the middle of the semester when students are not normally expecting a course evaluation. The classes included in the study were ten randomly selected undergraduate and graduate education classes. Once the classes were selected, the researcher contacted the professors who taught the selected courses to provide the purpose of the study and the directions to administer the evaluation. All of the professors are white Americans who have taught at the college for at least 5 years full-time and agreed to distribute and collect a survey to their students. They were directed to tell their students that the questionnaire would be kept confidential, therefore the participants did not write their names nor personal identification numbers on the evaluation form. The participating professors passed out one questionnaire and one scan sheet per student.

Students had to find a questionnaire code number appearing on top of the questionnaire and write the number on the scan sheet before they marked answers like the sample they were shown by the participating professors. Participants were asked to read one scenario appearing above the course evaluation questions, answer biographic questions, and evaluate the professor's competence on a scan sheet using a number 2 pencil. It took about five minutes for each student to read a scenario and complete a questionnaire. Students rated a faculty described in a scenario on a five point scale arranging from A = poor, B = acceptable, C = good, D = very good, and E = excellent. The letter ratings A to E were converted to number ratings, A = 0, B = 1, C = 2, D = 3, and E = 4 before entering the numeric raw data.

The participating professors collected both the questionnaire and completed scanner sheets and told the students that their cooperation was appreciated. All 240 evaluation sheets were collected by the instructors participating in this study during class. Although the return rate was 100%, four unmarked answer sheets were disregarded, therefore 236 were included in the data analysis. Four responses had to be eliminated since they were either incomplete or left blank with descriptive remarks about the evaluation form. The collected data was exported into SPSS, which was used to perform the Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) and Univariate Analyses of Variance (ANOVA).

Results

The results of three research questions investigated in this study were as follow.

1. Do students' perceptions toward professors differ based on the professors' ethnicity? The MANOVA results indicated that students' perception toward the teaching competence of professors was significantly different based on the professors' ethnic backgrounds ($F = 2.22$, $p < 0.05$). Consequently, ANOVAs were performed in an attempt to identify specific aspects of teaching competence that were significantly affected by the professors' ethnicity. The ANOVAs revealed that the ethnic background of professors was a significant factor in a course evaluation in four aspects of teaching competence - the overall effectiveness ($F = 6.40$, $p < 0.05$), effective communication of ideas ($F = 4.95$, $p < 0.05$), overall quality of course ($F = 5.09$, $p < 0.05$), and benefit from the course ($F = 4.20$, $p < 0.05$), taught by professors. The means and standard deviations for each of four aspects of teaching competence are presented in Table 2. Table 2 indicates that Asian professors were rated significantly lower in four aspects of teaching competence. However, ethnicity was not significant in three other aspects of teaching competence - consistency/punctuality in meeting class and using allotted time, helpfulness/sensitivity/responsiveness to all students' needs, and course organization, structure, and clarify of requirements.

Table 2. Mean and SD for Professors' Four Aspects of Teaching Competence

	Asian		African		European	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Overall effectiveness	1.77[a]	.10	2.16[b]	.10	2.23[b]	.10
Effective communication of ideas	1.48[a]	.12	1.78[b]	.11	1.99[b]	.12
Overall quality of course	1.83[a]	.11	2.26[b]	.11	2.25[b]	.11
Benefit from the course	1.80[a]	.11	2.14[b]	.11	2.26[b]	.12

Means that share a common superscript do not differ significantly at p< .05.

2. Do students' perceptions toward professors differ when the professors are speaking English with their native accent as opposed to speaking with no accent? The MANOVA results indicated that students' perception toward the teaching competence of professors was not significantly different based on their use of an accent ($F = 1.05$, $p, > 0.05$).

3. Do students' perceptions toward professors differ depending on the academic discipline, specifically computer science and reading education? The MANOVA results indicated that students' perception toward the teaching competency of professors was significantly different based on the teaching subjects ($F = 2.61$, $p, < 0.05$). The ANOVA results, however revealed that there were no significant effects for any of seven aspects of teaching competence - the overall effectiveness, effective communication of ideas, overall quality of course, benefit from the course, consistence/punctuality in meeting class and using allotted time, helpfulness/sensitivity/responsiveness to all students' needs, and course organization, structure, and clarify of requirements.

4. Does the professors' ethnicity interact with subjects of the courses taught or speaking with an accent in determining student's perceptions toward professors? The MANOVA indicated no significant interaction effects.

Table 3. Summary of MANOVA Results for Interactions among Variables

(V1 = Ethnicity, V2 = Use of Accent, and V3 = Teaching Subject)

Variables	F	df	Significance
V1*V2	1.52	7	1.15
V1*V3	1.98	7	0.06
V2*V3	1.22	7	0.28
V1*V2*V3	1.26	7	0.26

P <0.05

Conclusion

While it was predicted that there would be a main effect for the instructor's ethnicity, the direction of this main effect was not as predicted. Since a majority of the students who participated in the study were white, and given that Boute (1999), Hendrix (1995), and McGowan (2000) have found that some white students tend to rate African-American professors low on course evaluations, it was predicted that professors with a European-American background would be judged more favorably than those with either an or Asian-American background. The results of this study, indicated, however, European-Americans were perceived to be no different than African-Americans in teaching effectiveness, and both of these groups were judged to be more effective than Asian-American professors. The results validate the finding of Jacobs and Friedman (1988) that students either avoid classes taught by non-native faculty or rate them lower on course evaluations and congruent with Harrington, et al. (1993) that non-native professors were perceived as less competent regardless of whether they had adequate English language skills.

It may be that these results are a function of the relatively small Asian-American population in the college as well as in the geographical area in which this research was conducted. This lack of experience may hamper students' ability to view Asians professors as competent. Future research may include more qualitative items in order to learn why students seem to perceive Asian-American professors as less effective than either European-American or African-American professors.

Given that complaints from students about not being able to understand the lectures of foreign-born faculty are relatively common in some studies, such as, Jacobs and Friedman (1988) and Smith and Necessary (1994), it was expected that there would be a main effect for lecturing with an accent. That such an effect was not found is difficult to explain. Perhaps making abstract judgments about the effort required to listen to lectures delivered in accented English is different from the reality in some cases. In some cases the accent of foreign or minority faculty may be slight and even lend an exotic quality to the lectures while in others cases, students must pay close attention to understand the material. Perhaps future research could utilize audiotapes in which the nature of the accent is manipulated to learn more about how this variable influences perceptions of teaching effectiveness.

Finally, it was predicted that there would be an interaction effect involving ethnic background and subject of the course. The reasoning was that foreign-born faculty are more common in disciplines such as computer science and engineering and hence students would have had more experiences attesting to their competence in these areas than in education where such faculty are rare. Contrary to this expectation, Asian-American faculty were judged to be less effective in both the computer science course and the education course. Again, the possible explanation may be the lack of previous exposure to Asian faculty, which created a negative perception about Asian professors' teaching ability. As Galbraith (2002) reported, ethnic and racial minorities in a college with a smaller population of minority students and professors tend to face discrim-

ination. The fact that 90% of students enrolled in the college are White or Black and less than 3% are Asian may explain why Asian professors were viewed as less effective regardless of their teaching subjects.

The findings of this study can be used to alert higher education society that students may view certain minority faculty as less competent professors. Although universities are supposed to be free from ethnic prejudice or racial conflicts and professors' competence should be judged solely by their scholarly or professional merits, it needs to be noted that, as this study suggests, some students viewed the abilities of Asian-American professors lower than professors of other ethnicities.

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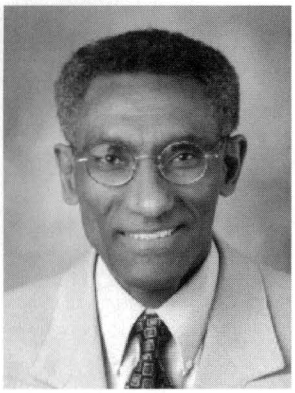
Student Teaching and Stress

Solomon Abebe and Joan Kitterman



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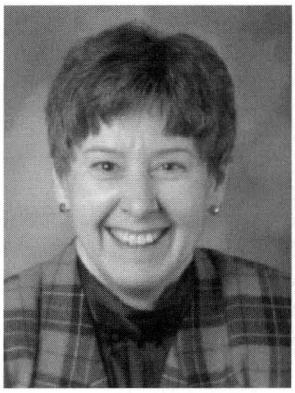

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Abstract

The study investigated specific teaching events which student teachers found stressful and possible remedies to these events which cooperating teachers confirmed. Although both student teachers and cooperating teachers agreed on the stressful nature of teaching overall, they disagreed on the stressful nature of some teaching events. Analysis of variance showed significant difference in the amount of stress by semester, gender, category, geographic area, age, teaching field, and years of experience for some teaching events. Both cooperating teachers and student teachers indicated that discipline was a major problem although less pronounced in rural than in suburban and urban areas. In addition, both groups suggested that increasing physical security would be a good remedy in suburban and urban areas.

While most practicing teachers/educators acknowledge that the assumption of teaching responsibility carries with it the acceptance of stress, this study suggests that stress factors and potential remedies as identified by student teachers and cooperating teachers must be carefully analyzed and controlled if their student teaching experiences are to be positive, a unique contribution of this study, thus, leading to a satisfying career and less turnover in the teaching corps.

The term stress has been associated with the teaching profession for quite some time. Selye (1956) defined stress as "the nonspecific response of the body to any demand" (p.1). Selye (1974) stated, "It is immaterial whether the agent or situation we face is unpleasant; all that counts is the intensity of the demand for readjustment or adaptation" (p.28). He goes on to say that stress, in and of itself, is not an evil. Stress has both positive and negative consequences (Selye, 1974). Maslach (1976), Greenwood and Greenwood (1979), and Gupta (1981) have indicated that increased teacher stress has led to reduced efficiency, tardiness, absenteeism, and turnover. Therefore, colleges and universities that prepare teachers should pay particular attention to the perceived stressful teaching events that student teachers face and endeavor to provide solutions for those problems.

Turney (as cited in Williams & Graham, 1992) stated that the student teaching experience is "the single most important interaction in a teacher preparation program where student teachers put it all together under the supervision and guidance of a significant other" (p. 34). Schempp (1985) agreed with this analysis by suggesting the student teaching experience generally be regarded as a very valuable component of pre-service preparation of teachers. While much has been written about the role of cooperating teachers, stress in student teachers and effective coping methods have received far less attention. Although specific causes were not identified with a level of certainty, the literature in the teaching practicum suggest that student teachers experience some levels of stress (Aitken & Mildon, 1999). Failure to cope with negative teaching events may impede the professional development of student teachers and, hence, might affect their success as first year teachers. It is important to identify those teaching events that cause stress so that, ultimately, effective strategies for lessening stress may be developed.

Fogarty and Yarrow (1994) also reported that student teachers, irrespective of their degree of experience, were 'significantly more stressed' (P. 16) by their relationships with pupils than by the evaluation of the cooperating teacher. Clement (1999) reported that classroom management, formal observations, and social and emotional problems of the students were perceived as primary stressors in the lives of student teachers. In a similar study related to Eng-

lish as a Second Language (ESL), Carver, Scheier and Weintraub (1989) concluded that teachers used socio-emotional techniques which involved expressing feelings to others and seeking support as coping mechanisms. Some also chose denial and disengagement as a strategy for dealing with stress. Interestingly, job searches as well as family issues were also rated as stressors for student teachers. These particular student teachers suggested that the cooperating teacher assisted them most frequently in dealing with their stress, while the college supervisors were rated as the second source of help to relieve the stresses in their lives. Cole and Knowles (1995) reported that student teachers often experience emotional trauma and confusion regarding college supervisors' and cooperating teachers' expectations during field experience. Other issues of concern for student teachers, as stated by Mitchell and Schwager (1993), were supervisors' expectations, communication with parents and the college, and being able to make a connection with new experiences.

In evaluating the results of the survey, Clement (1999) stressed the importance of colleges/universities providing support to cooperating teachers to make them aware of the stressors in the lives of student teachers. Likewise, student teachers need to be made aware of the stress in the student teaching experience and then attempt to eliminate some stress from their lives, such as outside employment or other duties.

Method

Participants in this study were current student teachers and their respective K-12 cooperating teachers in two metropolitan cities and their surrounding county schools covering urban, suburban and rural geographic areas in a Midwest state. The survey was conducted during the fall and spring semester of the same academic year. Based on their experience, effectiveness, and degrees earned, cooperating teachers were selected by their respective school administrators to mentor student teachers for a period of one semester. Student teachers were informed during the all-day seminar at the beginning of the semester about the intent of the survey, the procedures and the benefits of participating. They were also instructed to mention the survey to their cooperating teachers. The cooperating teachers were also informed of the survey, the process and procedures in a letter which was enclosed along with the survey instrument. Student teachers delivered the packet to the cooperating teachers. This single procedure may have created 'demand characteristic' for the cooperating teachers to feel obliged to complete the survey. However, they had a choice not to participate. Both groups received a packet with the survey, stamped return envelope, including a letter describing the survey items, anonymity, guidelines and instructions of when and how to fill out the survey. Ninety-two surveys were sent to cooperating teachers; 38 surveys were returned (41.3%). Ninety two surveys were sent to student teachers and 52 were returned (56.5%). The responses to 13 teaching events and 13 potential remedies were arranged along a five-point Likert Scale. Teaching events were ranked from low stress (1) to high stress (5) and potential remedies were ranked from very poor (1) to excellent (5). Each survey item is identified by the letter "V" and a number, such as V1, V2, V3, etc., to match the complete survey statement to the shortened version of the survey items which are displayed in the tables. The actual survey which participants received was written in full rather than what is shown in the tables in the following results. Although minor modifications were made to meet the needs in this survey, Wright (1985) originally developed and field tested the survey items at New Mexico State University, which dealt with stress-related teaching events in the classroom. Data were analyzed using ANOVA and MANOVA and descriptive statistics between and among groups. Dependent variables that showed significant difference are reported below, including mean comparison for each variable by gender, age, teaching level, geographic area, teaching field, category, and years of experience.

Conducting a study involving both student teachers and their cooperating teachers, using the same instrument, on stress events and potential remedies during the same period of time might assist in identifying and matching events of stress with the remedies as perceived by both practitioners. The perspectives of both student teachers and cooperating teachers are important in matching stress events to perceived remedies for each. Therefore, this study discusses teaching events which student teachers found stressful and possible remedies to these events which cooperating teachers confirmed. Although only significant results are reported, caution is needed as readers interpret the results as some sample numbers (n) are much smaller than others.

Results and Discussion

Means by semester

Analysis of variance showed significant difference in stress level for the variable "Lecture" with greater mean for the spring semester than the fall semester. Analysis of variance also showed significant difference for three variables as stress remedies. The variable "Expulsion" showed greater mean for spring semester than the fall semester. Another was the variable "Payment for student teaching" with greater mean for fall semester than spring semester. The third was the variable "Reduce supervisor's visits" with greater mean for spring semester than the fall semester. When asked if teaching was stressful, both cooperating teachers and student teachers agreed that it was with some variation. Cooperating teachers (42.2%) and student teachers (57.8%) said teaching was stressful. The differences by semester may have been impacted by the different calendars of instructional days between fall semester and spring semester. The use of lecture may have been more prominent in the spring semester because the fall semester included more review in preparing students

for statewide tests. Expulsion of students may have been more of a consideration in the spring semester because of weariness among teachers and students. No other significant differences were detected by semester. (See Table 1.)

Table 1
Test of Means by Semester

Same Calendar Year

Ref	F-Value	Sign.	Sample P	Spring	Fall
V9 Lecture	9.745 (1)	0.002	Mean SD n	4.042 1.1 24	3.197 1.1 66
V14 Expulsion	9.307 (1)	0.003	Mean SD n	3.875 0.74 24	3.152 661
V19 Stu. teach payment	6.440 (1)	0.013	Mean SD n	2.958 1.4 24	3.803 1.3 66
V24 Reduce Visits	3.646 (1)	0.05	Mean SD n	2.925 1.1 24	2.182 0.89 66

Means by gender

Analysis of variance and mean comparison showed significant results by Gender for one variable. The variable "Student teacher/parent relationship" showed significant difference with greater mean for female than male. Two other variables showed significant difference as a potential remedy for stress. One was "Reduction of class size" with greater mean for male than female. Another was the variable "Reduce pull out ...interruptions" with greater mean for males than for females. Female student teachers appeared to place a much greater emphasis upon relationships with parents as indicators of stress. Because this study included more female student teachers and many of those were elementary student teachers, these findings may have been a result of the more prevalent contact that elementary teachers have with parents. Likewise, the class size variable may have been an indication of larger classes at the secondary level. The reduction of pull-out interruptions may have been an indication that males are less tolerant of this aspect of education than females. No other significant results were detected. (See Table 2.)

Table 2
Test of Means by Gender

Ref	F-Value	Sign.	Sample P	Male	Female
V7 St. Tchr/Par relationship	5.35 (1)	0.02	Mean SD n	2.222 1.3 11	3.278 1.3 79
V18 Class size	4.599 (1)	0.035	Mean SD n	4.363 1 11	4.139 1 79
V22 Reduce pullout	4.881 (1)	0.03	Mean SD n	3.545 1.2 11	3.126 1.1 79

Means by category

Analysis of Variance showed significant difference by Category for three stress events and four potential remedies as perceived by participants. The variable "Expecting the unexpected" showed significant difference with greater mean for the category of Cooperating teacher than Student teachers. The variable "Power debate with students" showed significant difference with greater mean for the category of Cooperating teachers than Student teachers. The variables that showed significant difference by Category indicating possible remedies for stress elements were as follows: "Payment for student teachers" with greater mean for Student teachers than for Cooperating teachers; the variable "Presence of cooperating teacher" with greater mean for Cooperating teachers than for Student teachers; conversely, the variable "Absence of cooperating teacher" with greater mean for Student teachers than for Cooperating teachers. Both variables suggested that both groups indicated that their role is as important as the other role. The variable "Doing less lesson plans" with greater mean for Student teachers than for Cooperating teachers suggested that student teachers were in favor of it as a stress remedy. (See Table 3.) In "Expecting the unexpected", cooperating teachers may have recognized more of "the unexpected" than did the student teachers; the student teachers may have not known that these events were "unexpected". Likewise, the use of power debates may have been a relatively unknown phenomenon of student teachers. As a remedy, the payment issue may have sounded like a good idea to student teachers, but cooperating teachers may have viewed that as a rite of passage and not a realistic option. Another remedy, the presence of the cooperating teacher, was important to the cooperating teachers who would be expected to show much ownership of the classroom. Conversely, the student teachers may have felt more freedom in the absence of the cooperating teacher. Preparing few lesson plans naturally appealed to the student teachers but this may have reflected the time required to produce the lengthy lesson plans of this particular teacher education program and not the planning inherent in the teacher plan book. Further, it is expected that student teachers would experience stress in the experience; however, many cooperating teachers experience much stress in this experience as well. It is important to reiterate that both variables, "Absence of cooperating teacher" and "Presence of cooperating teacher", suggest that both groups indicated that their role is as important as the other. No other significant results were reported. (See Table 3.)

Table 3
Test of Means by Category

Ref	F-Value	Sign.	Sample P	Std. teacher	Coop. teacher
V6 The Unexpected	6.875 (1)	0.01	Mean SD n	2.75 0.987 52	3.1358 1.04 38
V12 Power debate with students	4.051 (1)	0.05	Mean SD n	2.9231 1.2 52	3.4474 1.2 38
V19 Payment to std. teachers	0.735 (1)	0.002	Mean SD n	3.9804 1.2 52	3.0263 1.4 38
V20 Presence of coop. teach.	6.974 (1)	0.01	Mean SD n	2.0389 1 52	2.6054 0.97 38
V21 Absence of coop. teach.	6.571 (1)	0.001	Mean SD n	3.4615 1 52	2.5526 1 38
V23 Less lesson plans	8.419 (1)	0.001	Mean SD n	3.3077 1.2 52	2.2632 0.94 38
V27 Your stress level	0.798 (1)	0.001	Mean SD n	3.1154 0.73 52	2.5526 0.89 38

Category = Student Teacher, Cooperating Teacher

Means by geographic area

Analysis of variance showed significant difference for three stressful events and one potential remedy by Geographic area (Urban, Suburban, and Rural). The variable "Unmotivated students" showed greater mean for Urban and Suburban than for Rural. Another variable was "Working with peers" that showed greater mean for the Suburban group than both Urban and Rural. Another variable was "Managing discipline", with greater mean both for Suburban and for Urban groups than Rural. Although participants in the three areas (Urban, Suburban, and Rural) suggested that discipline was a problem and needed to be dealt with, the figures indicated that the problem was less pronounced in rural regions. Participants suggested that discipline problems were more pronounced in urban and suburban regions and, therefore, increasing physical security in those regions might help in coping with the stressors. It must be cautioned, however, that the means for the variable "Unmotivated students" for all three groups were high, suggesting that stress was evident; however small the mean difference was among groups, it was significant. Therefore, the problem was less pronounced in rural areas than the other two. These findings may have been a reflection of the smaller size of most rural settings. Those student teachers in suburban schools found it more stressful to work with peers but that, too, may have been a reflection of the numbers of teachers in these schools. As a remedy, increasing security in a school setting may have simply reflected the perception of danger in an urban or suburban setting. No other significant results were detected. (See Table 4.)

Table 4
Test of Means by Geographic Area

Ref.	F-Value	Sign.	Sample P	Urban	Suburban	Rural
V2 Unmotivated students	4.593 (2)	0.01	Mean SD n	3.5882 1.0000 34	3.5000 1.1000 26	3.1667 0.8300 30
V3 Working with peers	3.955 (2)	0.02	Mean SD n	1.7059 0.8700 34	2.6154 1.1000 26	1.9667 1.2000 30
V5 Discipline	3.996 (2)	0.02	Mean SD n	4.0882 1.1000 34	4.1154 1.0000 26	3.4333 1.1000 30
V17 Increase security	5.697 (2)	0.01	Mean SD n	3.1471 1.0000 34	3.0385 1.1000 26	2.6000 0.9600 30

Means by age

Two perceived potential remedies showed significant difference by Age. Analysis of variance showed significance with the variable "Absence of cooperating teacher" with greater mean for age groups 31-35; for age group 26-30; for age group 20-25; and for age group 41-45 than for age group 36-40; for age group 46-50 and for the age group Over 51. The variable "Preparing less lesson plans", although small, showed significant difference with greater mean for age group 20-25 and age group 31-35 than age group 36-40, age group 41-45, age group Over 51 , age group 46-50 and age group 26-30. The younger cooperating teachers may have felt more comfortable leaving the classroom in the hands of the student teachers or may have remembered the stress they felt as a student teacher when someone was watching them. Likewise, writing fewer lesson plans was, generally, a greater reliever of stress for the younger cooperating teachers and may have reflected their more recent experiences with this task. No other significant results were detected. (See Table 5.)

Means by teaching field

Analysis of variance and mean comparison by Teaching Field showed significant difference for two stress events and one potential remedy. The variable "Selection of materials" showed significant difference with greater mean for Art, History, Music, Mathematics and Science than English, Elementary education and for Physical education. The variable "Cooperating teacher's demands" also showed significant difference by Teaching field with greater mean for Mathematics, Elementary Education, English, and Art. Lower means were detected for Science, Music, Physical education, and History. In addition, the variable "Parent involvement" showed significant difference as a stress remedy by Teaching field with greater mean for Art, Music, Elementary education, Science, Physical education and History. Lower mean was detected for English and Mathematics. It must be cautioned that the small number of respondents in the five fields should be taken into account. On the other hand, the number of respondents was higher in elementary education and English, yet the mean was significantly lower. Because some subjects may be less structured than others, the selection of

Table 5
Test of Means by Age

Ref	F-Value	Sign.	Sample P	20-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50	Over 51
V21 Absence of coop. teach	.214 (6)	0.05	Mean	3.3396	3.4280	3.5000	2.6000	3.0000	2.4286	2.1818
			SD	1.0000	1.3000	0.7070	1.1000	0.0000	0.9759	1.0700
			n	53	7	2	5	5	7	11
V23 Less lesson plans	.065 (6)	0.01	Mean	3.3208	1.7143	3.0000	2.4000	2.4000	2.1429	2.2727
			SD	1.2200	0.9500	1.4000	0.8900	0.5400	0.8900	1.1000
			n	53	7	2	5	5	7	11

Table 6
Test of Means by Teaching Field

Ref	F-Value	Sign.	Sample P	English	Math	Science	EleEd	P.E.	Music	Hist.	Art
V1 Select materials	2.800 (6)	0.02	Mean	2.2500	2.5000	2.5000	2.3243	2.1111	2.6666	3.6667	4.0000
			SD	0.9400	1.2000	1.0000	0.9700	1.4000	0.8100	0.5700	NA
			n	24	4	6	37	9	6	3	1
V8 Cooperating teacher	3.053 (6)	0.01	Mean	3.2914	4.2500	2.8333	3.6757	2.5556	2.6666	1.6667	3.0000
			SD	1.8000	0.9500	1.7000	1.3000	1.6000	1.6000	0.5700	NA
			n	24	4	6	37	9	6	3	1
V16 Parent involvement	2.933 (6)	0.02	Mean	2.8750	2.5000	3.3333	3.4595	3.0000	3.8833	3.0000	4.0000
			SD	1.0000	1.2000	1.3000	1.0000	0.8600	0.9800	1.0000	NA
			n	24	4	6	37	9	6	3	1

Table 7
Test of Means by Experience

Ref	F-Value	Sign.	Sample P	None	1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	Over 26
V18 Class size	3.429 (6)	0.01	Mean	4.1846	3.8000	3.6000	4.2857	4.0000	3.3750	4.2500
			SD	0.9500	1.3000	0.5400	0.9500	0.4400	1.3000	1.1000
			n	52	5	5	7	5	8	8
V20 Presence of coop. teacher	2.818 (6)	0.02	Mean	2.0385	1.4000	3.0000	3.0000	2.2000	2.7500	2.8750
			SD	1.0000	0.5400	1.5000	0.5700	1.3000	0.7000	0.3500
			n	52	5	5	7	5	8	8
V21 Absence of coop. teacher	2.980 (6)	0.02	Mean	3.4615	2.8000	2.8000	2.8571	2.8000	2.1250	2.2500
			SD	1.0000	1.6000	1.0000	0.8900	0.4400	0.8300	1.3000
			n	52	5	5	7	5	8	8

teaching materials proved to be stressful for some student teachers. The cooperating teachers' demands upon student teachers generally appeared to create more stress in those subject areas that were involved in state-wide testing. As a stress remedy, parent involvement was generally very high for elementary education student teachers but even higher for music and art student teachers. These two subject areas sometimes involve parents with various agendas. No other significant results were detected. (See Table 6.)

Means by Experience

Analysis of variance also showed significant difference for the following variables as potential stress remedies by Number of Years of Experience. The variable "Reducing class size" was a favorable choice with greater mean for 11-15 years; for Over 26 years; for None (student teachers); for 16 - 20 years; for 1-5 years; for 6-10 years; and for 21-25 years of experience. The variable "Presence of cooperating teacher" showed significant difference as a potential stress remedy with greater mean for 6-10 years; 11-15 years of experience; for Over 26 years; for 21-25 years; for 16-20 years; for None (student teachers); and for 1-5 years of experience.

The variable "Absence of Cooperating Teacher" showed significant difference as a potential stress remedy, with greater mean for None (student teachers); for 11-15 years; for 1-5 years, 6-10 years, and 16-20 years of experience; for Over 26 years; and for 21-25 years of experience. Essentially, all participants in this survey acknowledged the potential of reducing class size as a stress remedy. The presence or

absence of the cooperating teacher varied tremendously as a reducer of stress. Those responses may have been more a reflection of the relationship between the student teacher and the cooperating teacher. No other significant differences were detected. (See Table 7.)

Conclusion

In order to gain a better understanding of the challenges facing student teachers and to provide effective coping mechanisms, it is necessary to identify stressors with great certainty so that remedies and coping strategies may be developed. Further research of this kind is surely needed to validate those emotions that are a result of the perceived stress-inducing teaching events. Recommendations to reduce stress in student teaching are the following:

1. Opportunity should be provided to all education majors, particularly in the methods courses, to learn about stressful teaching events and what to do about them.

2. Opportunity should be provided to all cooperating teachers in the field to learn about stressful teaching events and the perceived remedies as coping mechanisms so that they could serve as the first line of response as needed.

3. Teaching events and coping strategies should be devised and discussed on a continuous basis during student teaching seminars.

4. Opportunity should be provided to all college supervisors addressing targeted expectations and other events that might contribute to the student teachers' apprehensions of the supervisors' presence.

5. Teacher education programs should include procedures designed to improve knowledge of urban and suburban education issues as well as the growing diverse populations and how they might contribute to stress in the teaching profession. The authors believe these need to be addressed in the early stages of teacher education programs.

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Correction does much, but encouragement does more. Encouragement after censure is as the sun after a shower.

– Johann Wolfgang von Goethe

Why Critical Thinking?

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Abstract

This article is an attempt to look at an important issue: "critical thinking," and argue the need for promoting critical thinking activities in the K – 12 setting and even at the college level. Well-known authors and their views on why critical thinking activities must be promoted are explored throughout the article. It also focuses on why it is hard to include critical thinking activities in K-12 settings and how teachers are also caught up in the system that values a score on standardized tests more than involvement in creative and critical thinking activities.

> The critical habit of thought, if usual in a society, will pervade all its mores, because it is a way of taking up the problems of life. Men educated in it cannot be stampeded by stump orators...They are slow to believe. They can hold things as possible or probable in all degrees, without certainty and without pain. They can wait for evidence and weigh evidence, uninfluenced by the emphasis or confidence with which assertions are made on one side or the other. They can resist appeals to their prejudices and all kinds of cajolery. Education in the critical faculty is the only education of which it can be truly said that it makes good citizens.
>
> William Graham Sumner, Folkways, 1906
> (As cited in http://www.criticalthinking.org/)

Written in the beginning of the twentieth century, this holds much more true for our present society. In the recent years we have been witnessing radical changes in our perceptions especially with regard to human interactions and human behavior. Added to that is the tremendous pace of changes in technology. The future holds big challenges for us as well as our future generations. With the expansion of choices available to everyone comes the challenge of making the right choices. So how do we train others and ourselves in making the right choices? How can we teach someone to evaluate what is right and make the best possible choice? The answer lies in *critical thinking.*

But what is critical thinking? There are a number of definitions and many educators interpret it and explain it in multiple ways. The National Council for Excellence in Critical Thinking Instruction defines *critical thinking* as: *Critical thinking* is that mode of thinking - about any subject, content, or problem - in which the thinker improves the quality of his or her thinking by skillfully taking charge of the structures inherent in thinking and imposing intellectual standards upon them (Scriven & Paul, 2004). In her book, *Critical and Creative Thinking: Strategies for Classroom,* Susan Wilks (1995) emphasizing the importance of promoting critical and creative thinking in the classroom encourages the use of the inquiry mode. In another book titled, *The Critical Thinking Handbook – 6th-9th grades* (Paul, Binker, Jensen, & Kreklau, 1990), the authors define critical thinking as "thinking which evaluates reasons and brings thought and actions in line with evaluations" (p. 52). The ideal of the critical thinker, the book suggests, can be roughly expressed in the phrase "reasonable person," meaning a person who evaluates reasons and evidence, can distinguish poor from strong reasoning, make assumptions and evaluate them, reject unwarranted inferences, and distinguish what is known from what is merely suspected. Scriven & Paul (2004) identifies the characteristics of what he refers to as "a well cultivated critical thinker" as one who: raises vital questions and problems, formulating them clearly and precisely; gathers and assesses relevant information, using abstract ideas to interpret it effectively and comes to well-reasoned conclusions and solutions, testing them against relevant criteria and standards; thinks open-mindedly within alternative systems of thought, recognizing and assessing, as need be, his/her assumptions, implications, and practical consequences; and communicates effectively with others in figuring out solutions to complex problems.

It is clear that critical thinking is considered by many as an essential component of learning and is advocated by many. But the question that is often debated is whether it can be taught. And if it can be taught, then what is the best way to approach it. Many researchers and educators concur with the

idea that critical thinking can be taught, or rather inculcated into the school curriculum. While this is a widely recognized belief, there are many who lament the lack of critical thinking opportunities for children in K-12 school settings, for that matter even in higher education. Why is it so?

One reason proposed by Peter Kline (2002), is that American children can't think, as they haven't been properly taught to read. He laments the excessive push towards standardized testing that focuses on comprehension rather than interpretation, which Kline considers a better measure of the ability to think. Drawing from research on physiological differences in learning development, varying learning styles, and pedagogical approaches to teaching reading, and use of visualization and imagination in reading, Kline in his book, *Why America's children can't think: Creating independent minds for the 21st century* offers a different approach to reading that encourages engagement and thinking. Many other authors have written about how critical thinking can be infused into the curriculum.

While many teachers and professors keep complaining about the lack of thinking capacity or sheer laziness with regard to thinking deeply about anything in their students, Winn (2004) claims that the majority of teachers and professors do not use the kind of teaching materials or discussion strategies that would build in their students 'a mental set and a taste for critical thinking.' Field studies in many secondary schools have shown that teachers use limited range of pedagogical options and recalling answers still is the primary form of assessment. Thus the typical classroom atmosphere and procedures dull the possibilities for creating the very qualities of mind that educators avow as their goal. But who is to blame for this!

Definitely not all blame can be laid on the teachers' table. The teachers themselves are caught up in the system that values a high score on a standardized test more than it values a creative response. And it is indeed unfortunate that this form of standardized assessment continues to be advocated by the powers-to-be.

Another impediment to critical thinking is the ongoing debate regarding teaching basic skills or critical thinking skills, which has been going on for more than three decades now. Fortunately, the case for critical thinking is made by the empirical evidence drawn from the results of assessments conducted by the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) once a year or two since 1969 in various subjects— including mathematics, science, reading, and civics, taken by representative samples of 4th, 8th, and 12th graders throughout the United States (U.S. Department of Education, 2000). Because each student takes only a small subset of the exam, the full exam can cover a substantial breadth and depth of material. Test items include both multiple-choice responses and more complex written responses so that they assess both basic skills and critical thinking skills. In addition to the test, students and their teachers and school administrators also fill out questionnaires that furnish information about student and teacher backgrounds and the instructional practices used in the classroom. On examination of results, a clear pattern emerged: across subjects, teaching for meaning was associated with higher NAEP scores; or in other words, teaching that emphasizes advanced reasoning skills promotes higher levels of student learning and performance (Wenglinsky, 2000, 2002, 2003).

Why is it with this that even with empirical evidence like this one and others, do schools not focus on critical thinking? Winn (2004) focuses on two reasons: American society and American education have always idolized the 'quiz whiz,' one who can shoot back correct answers to factual questions as in a TV game show. Added to that is the societal pressure to conform and to shy away from critical thinking because it is not "polite" or "nice." Winn claims "Americans commonly confuse the adjective "critical" with negativism, conveniently missing the point that the opposite of critical thinking is "uncritical" thinking, which is not thinking at all!" (p. 496). As we move into this new information age, and are informed about the modern day debacles such as the Iraq conflict, the Columbia space shuttle disaster, the ravaging of the world's natural resources, the financial scandals of Enron and WorldCom, and so on, critical thinking needs to be encouraged, not ignored.

What will happen if we continue to be in denial with regard to critical thinking in schools? Robert J. Sternberg (2004) of Yale University has put forth what he calls as 'four alternative futures for education in the United States.' In the first future, the one he claims is being faced by most children in the world, where children are only called on to recall and recognize, he shows a bleak picture where there is a complete disconnect between secular and democratic principles and what is taught in schools. The second future that Sternberg (2004) offers is that of the critical thinker who is less likely to commit terrible debacles and will be a good problem solver. The third future offered is that of successful intelligent thinkers who have the creative skills to generate new ideas, the analytical abilities to know whether they are good ideas and the practical abilities to know how to implement the ideas and convey to others the value of their ideas. Sternberg claims that even this is not enough and to validate his claim, he gives the examples of the top-level managers in companies such as Enron, Global Crossing and World COM. They were all well educated and smart, yet something fundamental was missing in the way they were educated. Sternberg calls this missing piece of the puzzle, 'wisdom.' It is not enough to teach students to be intelligent and knowledgeable, but also how to use them. The four futures that Sternberg offers build on the previous ones. So isn't it really unbelievable that instead of moving on to the second future of a nation of critical thinkers, we want to go back to the previous one, a nation of rote memorizers (p. 67-77).

It is hoped that the stakeholders will soon realize the road all the push towards standardized testing is

leading to and refocus all their energies into promoting critical thinking thus creating a nation of wise thinkers. Though this can be a daunting task, it is not impossible. Fortunately, there are many informed and wise thinkers and educators who have shown the path and have given concrete ideas and suggestions on how this can be done.

If we look at one particular discipline alone, say, language, a number of successful strategies that can be used to promote critical thinking have been identified. M. A. K. Halliday (1975) taught us that language did not develop because of one language user but rather because of two, and they wanted to communicate. Language is first and foremost a social meaning-making process. Most of what we know about language we have learned from being in the presence of others (Wells, 1986). Harste (2003) argues that too often in the past our English language arts curricula have focused on meaning making with a half hour of phonics thrown in. For the most part, studying language in terms of what work it does and how it does it has been left out, as has providing daily opportunities to inquire into problems of personal and social relevance to learners. This is what Harste refers to as 'critical literacy.' The real question that each of us has to ask is, "What kind of literate being should inhabit the 21st century?" Asked differently, "What kind of lives do we want to live and what kind of people do we want to be?" Hopefully, the answer is that we want critically literate beings that know how language works and can use it to make meaning and reposition themselves in the world in a more democratically thoughtful and equitable manner.

A curriculum built on critical literacy is one that highlights diversity and difference while calling attention to how we are constructed as literate beings. One theoretical model that offers a useful framework for thinking about critical literacy is Luke and Freebody's model of reading as social practice (1997). According to this model, reading is best understood as a non-neutral form of cultural practice-one that positions readers in certain ways and obscures as much as it illuminates. Luke and Freebody argue that in preparing readers for the 21st century, teachers need to help children develop their resources in several areas:1) as code breakers, 2) as text participants, 3) as text users, and 4) as text critics (p. 214).

Another model for promoting critical thinking in language arts is focused on reading area. When teachers share critical texts with children and talk with them about the issues raised by these books, they become deeply involved in the process of culture making. They "interrupt" (Davis & Sumara, 1999) current views regarding reading instruction and the topics of conversation that are appropriate for children (Leland, Harste, Ociepka, Lewison, & Vasquez, 1999). Teachers who value teaching as a set of critical practices disrupt the normative patterns of society and open up spaces for new voices to be heard. Using selected children's literature is one way to begin critical conversations; they could also begin with newspaper articles, interviews with community members, or events in our schools. These teachers strive to disturb the status quo and this leads them to develop young minds that can think critically. They provide compelling evidence that teachers with a critical perspective can change the patterns of interaction in classrooms and enlarge the space of the possible. Since they are involved in complex research, they are not concerned primarily with describing or analyzing what is, but with finding out how what they are doing has affected the lives and situations of others. This kind of educational research is not simply research that takes place in educational settings; this kind of educational research is "research that seeks to educate" and affect the way things are (Davis & Sumara,1999, p. 31-32).

In one situation, Whitney Dotson, a new urban teacher who actively grabs all the opportunities that she can get to involve her students in critical thinking did a remarkable thing (Harste, & Leland, 2000). When her third graders were upset because the home of one student's grandmother had been condemned by the Board of Health and was scheduled for demolition, she urged them to take action by writing letters to the Board of Health. Instead of being positioned as helpless victims, they thus positioning themselves as social activists who are challenging the status quo and asking for change. They are starting to understand the political capital that is inherent in language. Whitney is helping them and herself to understand that this capital is there for the taking. Harste and Leland argue that this is exactly what education should be doing-especially for the teachers and children of "beleaguered" public schools everywhere.

Even at the earliest of ages, it is possible to encourage children to explore possibilities and think creatively. If we look at the simple activity of brainstorming, if done in the right context and in the right manner, it can promote very deep level thinking in children of all ages. What is required for this activity to be successful is to set the stage where the teacher can:

- Create a safe environment for children to be able to say any thought without fear or ridicule.
- Ask open-ended questions.
- Provide time for children to think and express their ideas.
- Be a model for sharing "crazy" ideas (Church, 2004).

The few models discussed here provide a glimpse into the possibilities of inducing critical thinking skills into the school curricula, in the language arts curricula. Other researchers have identified strategies for promoting critical thinking in other disciplines as well.

The discussion on critical thinking could not be complete without acknowledging the valuable contribution of Paul, et. al. (1990) who have identified what they refer to as the "36 dimensions of critical

thought." These are classified into three areas: affective strategies, cognitive strategies – macro-abilities and cognitive strategies – micro-skills. The affective strategies include the following: thinking independently; developing insight into egocentricity or sociocentricity; exercising fair-mindedness; exploring thoughts underlying feelings and feelings underlying thoughts; developing intellectual humility and suspending judgment; developing intellectual courage; developing intellectual good faith or integrity; developing intellectual perseverance; and developing confidence in reason. The cognitive strategies--macro-abilities include: refining generalizations and avoiding oversimplifications; comparing analogous situations: transferring insights to new contexts; developing one's perspective: creating or exploring beliefs, arguments, or theories; clarifying issues, conclusions, or beliefs; clarifying and analyzing the meanings of words or phrases; developing criteria for evaluation: clarifying values and standards; evaluating the credibility of sources of information; questioning deeply: raising and pursuing root or significant questions; analyzing or evaluating arguments, interpretations, beliefs, or theories; generating or assessing solutions; analyzing or evaluating actions or policies; reading critically: clarifying or critiquing texts; listening critically: the art of silent dialogue; making interdisciplinary connections; practicing Socratic discussion: clarifying and questioning beliefs, theories, or perspectives; reasoning dialogically: comparing perspectives, interpretations, or theories; and reasoning dialectically: evaluating perspectives, interpretations, or theories. The cognitive strategies--micro-skills include: comparing and contrasting ideals with actual practice; thinking precisely about thinking: using critical vocabulary; noting significant similarities and differences; examining or evaluating assumptions; distinguishing relevant from irrelevant facts; making plausible inferences, predictions, or interpretations; evaluating evidence and alleged facts; recognizing contradictions; and exploring implications and consequences (p. 56).

Looking carefully at the list above, unfortunately, not many of these activities are not what the typical classroom activities comprise of. These critical thinking skills can be incorporated into the curricula as has been seen in the discussion earlier. A few committed and critical thinkers among the vast majority of educators see this urgent need and respond to it. More and more educators need to join these ranks so that we can have a future where we have wise thinkers who have both the knowledge and intelligence and the ability to use it wisely for the betterment of humanity.

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Don't Turn the Other Cheek: Power and Control of Domestic Violence Education

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Abstract

The purpose of this exploratory research was to examine ways that education impacts common fallacies regarding domestic violence. This article examines the feminist and ecological perspectives. Areas, such as policy reform, family therapy, research processes, character education, and domestic violence in-service education training should be examined to make further attempts to help individuals, families, and communities recognize domestic violence issues and understand the impact that these issues have on society.

Introduction

A group of men from a small, rural community meet at their local coffee shop. A married, heterosexual couple they all knew came into conversation because one of the men had heard the woman was filing for a divorce. The rumor was that her husband was physically abusive towards her. This is an example of intimate violence in a heterosexual relationship; Sally Lloyd (2000) states that "research spanning the past three decades has clearly demonstrated that violence which occurs in a close relationship must be understood within this context of intimacy and power" (pp. 19-20).

All of the men at the coffee shop may have had different opinions about the decisions this couple had made, or were about to make. Many judgments are made towards other individuals and families with regards to interactions taking place in families. Common myths, judgments and assumptions are created regarding domestic violence. Despite the intentions, misunderstandings regarding domestic violence do not help victims of domestic violence. In fact, assumptions or misinformed individuals can destroy what little confidence victims have. Education on domestic violence issues can play a major role in breaking this cycle.

Facts regarding domestic violence

Domestic Violence is an issue that affects many lives in America today. In 2002, the Illinois Coalition Against Domestic Violence (ICADV) provided "over 553,000 hours of direct client services, 47,384 adult clients of domestic violence (96% of whom were women) with services, and 11,019 children of victims of domestic violence with services" (Illinois Coalition, 2003, p. 7). These statistics represent the numbers of services provided through agencies that are funded by the ICADV. Therefore, these numbers do not represent every victim in Illinois because those that sought services from other agencies are not included in these numbers and there is no way to report those that did not seek any services.

The ICDAV defines domestic violence as "a pattern of coercive control that one person exercises over another" (Illinois Coalition, 2003, p. 15). While some individuals may associate domestic violence with solely physical violence, this is not the case. Domestic violence can include various forms of relationship violence along with verbal, emotional, psychological, sexual, and economic abuse.

> The ICDAV (2002) reported,
>
> "congress passed the Violence Against Women Act (VAWA in 1994), part of the federal Crime Victims Act, which funds services for victims of rape and domestic violence, allows women to seek civil rights remedies for gender-related crimes, and provides training to increase police and court officials' sensitivity" (p.14).

Since the VAWA, there has never been a greater awareness of the issue of domestic violence. For example, many prevention programs have derived from this problem and there are many available shelters for women and children across the United States. However, despite efforts to raise awareness about domestic violence issues, many people remain uninformed, or misinformed.

The Impact on Society

Society—as a whole—would greatly benefit from improving and expanding education regarding clear definitions of domestic violence, the effects of domestic violence, identification of victims and why domestic violence happens in so many homes across the country. While domestic violence causes

immediate trauma, it also has long-term effects. It is a critical national problem that impacts individuals, families, and communities.

The Need for Proper Training and Professional Development

Children may not always be victims of direct, physical abuse, but witnessing abuse within their homes may be just as traumatic for them. Kearney (1999) wrote that "each violent act they witness harms or confuses children (, and...) over time, they lose the meaning of morality and love. If teachers or school social workers are not properly trained on assessing these situations, children may never learn how to effectively manage conflicts. They may go on believing that certain types of behavior are normal, and, in turn, the issues associated with domestic violence are never faced (Kavemann, 2004).

Stereotypes about "proper" roles and responsibilities of men and women often begin in younger childhood, and are reinforced during adolescence. For example, "research on gender-role differentiation in the family shows that children's household tasks become more differentiated in adolescence, and children's activities with the same-sex parent intensify at the same time" (Sapiro, 1999, p. 102). Gender socializations may be at the root of cause with regards to males believing they should demonstrate masculinity and never show signs of weakness, such as crying. Therefore, it is the social responsibility of those who have had training in domestic violence to create community awareness regarding issues that can be linked to domestic violence.

Psychologist, Albert Bandura, hypothesized and placed emphasis on the learned behaviors of children and adolescents. Through Bandura's research we learn about "modeling" as a process of observing others' behaviors and/or behavioral patterns. According to Crain (2005), who examined the work of Albert Bandura, "children's minds are structured by the environment, by the models and the social training practices the environment provides" (Crain, 2005, p. 209). Studies have shown partial support for this theory when examining aggressive behaviors; these studies have all examined and hypothesized that when children witness aggressive behaviors in their home environments, it increases the likelihood that these children will exhibit aggressive behaviors as adults and possibly even abuse their own children (Malley-Morrison & Hines, 2004). However, it is imperative that we do not generalize. All children and adults deserve the right to establish their own reputation without negative criticisms or bias due to family structures, race, and socio-economic backgrounds or disadvantages.

Malley-Morrison and Hines (2004) state "judgments that people make about interactions in families—for example, whether they are normal, acceptable, and justifiable, or violent, abusive, and intolerable—are influenced by many factors, including personal experience, religious values, personal and community biases, education, and professional training (p. 3)." In their book, "Family Violence in a Cultural Perspective," Malley-Morrison and Hines note that judgments can help in certain situations that call for help of social service agencies, but these judgments can also lead to harsher realities, such as serious harm or injuries of victims.

Common fallacies about domestic violence include (but are not limited to): alcohol abuse is the cause of domestic battery incidents, domestic violence only occurs in families that are poverty stricken, battered women provoke the abuse, and all women who are battered enjoy it or they would call the police. None of these are true—to say the least.

Psychologist, Lenore Walker, has worked with battered women for 3 decades. Walker stated, "victims of domestic violence come from a wide variety of ages, races, religions, educational levels, cultures and socio-economic groups" (Illinois Coalition, 2003, p. 24). Walker has found that these women may exhibit a low self-esteem, have traditional beliefs in family unity, accept responsibility for others' actions, suffer guilt or denial, or have many other reasons for remaining in an abusive relationship.

Victims of "relationship violence" often stay with the abuser because they love him/her, fear him/her, or fear for the future of their children; victims may also be insecure about being financially independent, have acquired learned helplessness, believe that the perpetrator will not do it again, or they may not trust the legal system (Illinois Coalition, 2003). The victim may have been raised in a home where they—as a child—witnessed this pattern of power and control by their own father (Dykstra, 2004). Prevention and intervention measures can be taken through school or community based in-service training sessions regarding definitions, effects, and patterns associated with domestic violence.

While various statistics are misread or misinterpreted regarding frequencies and consequences of violent, intimate partner relationships, individuals are quick to jump to conclusions about types of violence and control tactics (Johnson, 1995). For example, various websites might make references that elude to males being the abusers 95% of the time, or at least it may be interpreted this way. However, it is crucial for individuals to understand the underlying fact that these statistics may allude to victims of homicide or numbers reported by domestic violence service agencies.

Individuals also need to be educated on the various types of intimate partner relationships. Johnson and Ferraro (2000) wrote an article which included different types of partner violence, types of perpetrators, and types of relationships; these researchers illustrated four patterns of partner violence: (1) common couple violence (later renamed this situational violence), (2) intimate terrorism, (3) violent resistance, and (4) mutual violent control. Personal opinions and/or bias on the issue of domestic violence can cause more harm than good because of the possibility of great tension between different sides.

Johnson and Ferraro (2000) state,

> "the distinctions are based not on behavior in a single incident , but on more general patterns of control exercised across the many encounters that comprise a relationship, patterns that are rooted in the motivations of the perpetrator and his or her partner" (p. 949).

Those who work with victims and perpetrators of domestic violence must be able to differentiate between types of violence to have a better understanding of situational needs and outcomes for victims and abusers. It is equally important to base services offered to victims and/or perpetrators on factual research and theoretical perspectives; over the years, there have been many hard lessons learned when evaluating services for survivors of domestic violence (Riger, S., Bennett, L, Wasco, S.M, Schewe, P.A, Frohmann, L., Camacho, J.M., & Campbell, R., 2002).

Obtaining professionals from a variety of religious backgrounds to help with education and/or domestic violence prevention services is also important. Some victims may make a decision to remain in a marital relationship with abusers based solely on efforts to remain faithful to their religion. Women in abusive relationships often feel subordinate and believe it is their duty to be submissive to their husbands (Sapiro, 1999). Taking a multi-cultural approach to education helps to ensure educators remain nonjudgemental, and in turn, educators will see more effective interactions with victims and/or perpetrators of domestic violence.

Law enforcement officials have a very important role in domestic violence cases. Domestic disputes may generate frustrations by law enforcement officials because they may find themselves going to the same homes repeatedly while legal action is not taken against the offenders. Henning, Jones, and Holdford (2005) discuss the increases of arrest and prosecutions for assaults in intimate partner relationships. In the 2005 study, Henning et al. conclude that

> "both male and female domestic violence offenders engage in socially desirable responding during court-ordered evaluations, that both attribute greater blame for the recent offense to their spouse/partner than they acknowledge for themselves, and that significant numbers of both genders deny the recent incident and/or minimize the severity of the offense" (p. 131).

Research has shown that "women who leave their abuser are 75% more likely to be killed by their batterer than those who stay in the relationship (, and...) of those women who leave, 50% are at a greater risk for ending up homeless and living on the streets" (Illinois Coalition, 2003, p. 40).

Another example of a group of people who are commonly uninformed, or misinformed, about domestic violence is professionals involved in drug and alcohol treatment and/or prevention programs. With knowledge of domestic violence issues, drug and alcohol counselors can give their clients the opportunity to receive necessary counseling on these two separate issues. Although drug and alcohol counselors may be highly trained in their field of expertise, it is difficult for them to be cross-trained in other areas, such as domestic violence. If domestic violence experts offer educationals for clients and/or staff within drug and alcohol treatment facilities, myths about domestic violence can be elucidated. Through education, drug and alcohol counselors are given access to domestic violence resources. This would also diminish opportunities for those seeking drug and alcohol counseling (or their family members) to be misguided, or receive unnecessary treatment.

While awareness of domestic violence issues has improved, those with domestic violence training have a responsibility to educate other professions on this serious matter. While it affects many different social statuses, ages and races, domestic violence is one of the most serious problems in the nation. Together, domestic violence advocates, law enforcement officials, teachers, medical professionals, and clergymen can promote safety and well-being for victims of domestic violence. Professionals who are properly trained can empower individuals, families, and communities to recognize domestic violence issues and seek opportunities to avoid the negative societal consequences.

Theoretical Application

The Feminist Framework is just one approach that helps define the role of sexism in domestic violence issues. Some of the propositions within the feminist framework include, but are not limited to: implications that "gender structures all societies..., the family is not monolithic..., and the family is a central institution for the reproduction of oppression" (White and Klein, 2002, p.183-184). This theoretical application represents many of the feminist issues that are associated with the family, such as family roles, culture variability, social expectations, and gender stereotypes. However, one must be cautious not to overexert a feminist perspective as this could result in bias.

Another approach which is a more conceptual model to evaluating domestic violence issues is an ecological approach. Malley-Morrison and Hines (2004) describe this approach as "the view that human development and behavior should be analyzed within a nested set of environmental contexts, labeled the microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, and macrosystem (as originally cited by Bronfrenbrenner, 1979) " (p. 16). We live in a morally ambiguous society, and we are surrounded by various cultures and beliefs. This theory allows us to see how domestic violence issues come about from various cultural perspectives. For example, when researchers look at abusive adults who were abused as children they may see family organization as a processing system; researchers, White and Klein (2002) state, "as children mature in their corporate roles and become more interdependent, they tend to follow the normative system that gave rise to their parental ecosystem" (p. 213).

These theories allow us to see a need for valuing education. Prevention and intervention efforts must be made to support multi-cultural education and universally accepted virtues that support opportunities to end the cycle of violence.

Conclusion

In *Family Theories*, White and Klein (2002) suggest interventions should include policy reform, family therapy, and review of the research process. Clearly, these would all play a major role in ending the cycle of violence.

Individuals should not underestimate the importance of education and prevention in domestic violence issues. For example, policy reform may help improve areas, such as unequal wages and job opportunities for women. However, policy reform alone will not change existing circumstances. In this situation, education could change societal conditions with time and it could also help prepare victims so that they do not have unrealistic expectations. If women are seeking help because they want to leave an abuser, educating women and children about what they can expect when they are faced with financial adversity might help. Education can also play a role in giving victims the resources they need, such as time, job sources, child care providers, and/or financial assistance, to help them with uncertainties about economic strain as they attempt to terminate a relationship.

Those that are properly trained to work with victims of domestic violence know that no one should tell a victim—woman or child—what they should or should not do, and because there are a variety of situational outcomes, no one can tell them exactly what to expect. With more training offered, or more in-service education brought to the community by domestic violence agencies, differences can truly be made in life or death situations.

How an adolescent develops positive moral values may have an impact in the decision-making process throughout the stages of adolescence. There are programs designed to guide teachers and family service workers as they attempt to help youth develop social skills. "Inculcation" is the term that Rice and Dolgin (2005) used to define teaching specific values and norms to students, (and...they define) "values clarification," as an approach to teaching moral education by helping students become aware of the values or virtues they have to offer others. Programs that offer social skills or character education may play a role in helping increase children's awareness on issues, such as domestic violence. Programs, such as this may teach children universally accepted values and help them to decipher between normal and abnormal behavior. This may also guide them towards positive strategies for coping, or help build skills for conflict resolution.

It is evident that when proper measures are taken with education, the individuals in our society—as a whole—are not "turning their cheeks". Every attempt that is made for education is a step to break the cycles of violence that occur in our communities.

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Portable vs. Permanent Classrooms: A Quasi-Experimental Study of Fifth Graders' Attitude and Mathematics Achievement

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Abstract

In this study, 43 fifth graders attended mathematics class in a portable classroom whereas 38 had their mathematics class in a permanent classroom of an elementary school. Student attitude and mathematics achievement between the two groups were compared. No significant difference was found. Student attitude and achievement was also observed through teachers' perception. Teachers in general did not perceive that portable classrooms had any negative impact on student attitude and achievement.

Introduction

Portable classrooms have been used by school districts nationwide to provide additional needed space when permanent school buildings have reached their full capacity (Moore, 1999; Sturgeon, 1998; Wyatt, 1997). The increased use of temporary portable classrooms is evident in light of the pressure for facility needs as a result of population growth and legislation on class size reduction (Economist, 1996). School districts have no choice but to use portable classrooms as temporary spaces to house the students while the new classrooms are under construction. In most cases, these portable classrooms will be removed when the new school building is ready to accommodate the students. However, in many schools, portable classrooms simply stay for many years without any plan for relocation.

Conceptual Framework

Public attitudes toward the use of portable classrooms have not been positive (Gibson & Eatough, 1968; Stoddard, 1997). Pre-fabricated configurations (Heise & Bottoms, 1990), safety concerns (Heise & Bottoms, 1990; Kennedy, 2000; Naylor, 1997), unattractive appearance (Moore, 1999; Taylor, Vasu, & Vasu, 1999), isolation from permanent buildings (Heise & Bottoms, 1990), costly maintenance (Callahan, 1997; Daneman, 1998; Fickes, 1998), possible health risks (American School & University, 1999), poor ventilation (Callahan, 1999), and quick deterioration (Fickes, 1998) are just a few examples of the limitations of using portable classrooms. Research has documented the impact of physical environment on pupil behavior, attitude, and performance (Chan, 1996; Cramer, 1976; Earthman, Cash, & Berkum, 1996; Hines, 1996; Hones, 1974; McGuffey, 1972). It is not difficult to associate the possibility of negative effect of portable classrooms and pupil behavior, attitude, and performance. However, research in portable classrooms is limited or lacking. Chan (2004) compared student achievement, behavior, and attitude between portable and permanent classrooms. The findings of the study indicated significant difference in student attitude between portable and permanent classrooms but no difference was found in student achievement and behavior. A similar study was also conducted by Chan (2003) to seek the teachers' perception on the impact of portable classrooms on student achievement, behavior and attitude. Results showed that teachers predominantly claimed they were the ones to make the difference in students not the classroom environment. More research is needed to examine how the portable classroom environments impact teachers' and students' classroom activities.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the student attitude and achievement in portable classrooms by comparing them with those of students in permanent classrooms. This study is important because it generates significant findings so much needed in the understanding of the impact of portable classrooms in the learning process.

Research Questions

The following research questions are developed for this study:

1. Do students housed in portable classrooms have more negative attitudes toward their schools than those housed in permanent classrooms?
2. Do students housed in portable classrooms have lower mathematics achievement than those housed in permanent classrooms?
3. How do teachers perceive the impact of portable classrooms on student attitude and achievement?

Methodology

Design.

The research design of this study is quasi-experi-

mental. While full control of variables in an experimental setting is not possible, the researcher was able to take advantage of the set environment of school that assigned part of the fifth graders to attend mathematics class in a portable classroom, and the rest of the fifth graders in a permanent classroom. In examining student attitude and mathematics achievement in portable and permanent classrooms, both quantitative and qualitative measures were used. Quantitative data (student mathematics scores and student attitude scores) were collected from 81 fifth grade students in an elementary school in Georgia. These students were housed partly in portable classrooms and partly in permanent classrooms. The qualitative aspect of the study was conducted through soliciting written responses from the eight teachers teaching these classes. All eight teachers were asked how they perceived the impact of portable classrooms on student attitude and achievement. By using this combined quantitative and qualitative methodology, the researcher was able to collect data of different formats to examine the research topic from multiple perspectives.

Participants.

Participants in this study were 81 fifth grade students in a Georgia elementary school that housed the gifted programs. Fifth grade was selected for the study because of the availability of test scores in the Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS). The school had a departmentalization organization with four teachers (language, science, math, and social studies) forming a teaching team. The 81 students in this study were assigned to eight classes taught by two teams of teachers. Teacher D, a mathematics teacher, was assigned to teach in a portable classroom while the rest of the teachers were housed in permanent classrooms. A total of 43 students attended Teacher D's mathematics class in the portable classroom while 38 students received their mathematics instruction from Teacher H in a permanent classroom. Table 1 illustrates how teachers and students were assigned in either portable or permanent classrooms in this study.

Instrument.

Student attitude data were collected using Student Attitude Inventory (SAI) developed by Dr. Carroll W. McGuffey of University of Georgia (See Appendix 1). SAI was used in several educational facility studies before and was successfully tested to be a solid instrument with high level of validity and reliability. The instrument contains 55 items soliciting students' attitude toward their immediate learning environment. High and low scores in SAI are indications of positive and negative attitudes respectively.

Student achievement data were collected from the results of the Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS) taken by the fifth grade students in Spring 2003. ITBS scores in the mathematics area were examined in this study. ITBS scores in language art, social studies, and science were also collected and were used as control variables.

Qualitative data on teacher perceptions were collected by using a researcher designed instrument consisting of open-ended questions (see Appendix 2). Teachers were asked how they perceived the impact of portable classrooms on student attitude and achievement.

Table 1

	Language	Social Studies	Science	Math
Class 1	Teacher A	Teacher B	Teacher C	Teacher D (P)
Class 2	Teacher A	Teacher B	Teacher C	Teacher D (P)
Class 3	Teacher A	Teacher B	Teacher C	Teacher D (P)
Class 4	Teacher A	Teacher B	Teacher C	Teacher D (P)
Class 5	Teacher E	Teacher F	Teacher G	Teacher H
Class 6	Teacher E	Teacher F	Teacher G	Teacher H
Class 7	Teacher E	Teacher F	Teacher G	Teacher H
Class 8	Teacher E	Teacher F	Teacher G	Teacher H

Class and Teacher Assignment to Portable and Permanent Classrooms

(P) = Class housed in a portable classroom

Procedure.

This study was conducted in a departmentalized elementary school in Georgia where students move from room to room to attend classes. Eight classes of 81 fifth grade students were involved in this study. Four of the classes with a total of 38 students (control group) were housed in permanent classrooms for all the academic instructions including mathematics. The other four classes of 43 students (experimental group) received their mathematics instruction in portable classrooms and the rest of the classes in permanent classrooms. The purpose of this study was to compare student attitude and mathematics scores of students in portable classrooms and permanent classrooms. Because both groups of students studied mathematics in the same school setting, variables such as principal's influence, program impact, and course requirements were under control. The two veteran mathematics teachers, one teaching in a portable classroom and one in a permanent classroom, were teachers of comparable qualifications and teaching experiences. Students in both the experimental group and control group responded to the Student Attitude Inventory. They were directed to respond to the attitude inventory by reflecting their feeling of their immediate classroom environment.

The impact of portable classrooms on student attitude and mathematics achievement was also studied through the perceptions of the teachers who taught the students in class. A survey consisting of direct open-ended questions on portable classrooms was administered to the eight teachers to solicit their perceptions on the impact of portable classrooms on

student attitudes and mathematics achievement.

Data Analysis.

Pearson's correlations were performed to involve all the academic variables in this study to observe the possible interrelationship between any two variables. Results of the analysis indicated strong correlations between ITBS scores of mathematics and ITBS scores of science, social studies, and language arts. (see Table 2) Therefore, it was decided that ITBS scores of science, social studies, and language arts would be included in the analytical process to minimize their possible effect on mathematics scores. Univariate Analysis of Variance was used to analyze if significant difference existed in attitude and math achievement between students in portable classrooms and permanent classrooms.

Table 2
Correlation Matrix (Math, Science, Language, and Social Studies)

		Math	Science	Lang	Ss
Math	Pearson r	1	.740**	.723**	.223*
	Sig. (2 tailed)		.000	.000	.000
	N	81	81	81	81
Science	Pearson r	.740**	1	.789**	.339**
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000		.000	.002
	N	81	81	81	81
Lang	Pearson r	.723**	.789**	1	-.027
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000		.810
	N	81	81	81	81
Ss	Pearson r	.223*	.339**	-.027	1
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.045	.002	.810	
	N	81	81	81	81

** Significant at the .001 level (2 tailed).

* Significant at the .05 level (2 tailed).

Findings

Results of Univariate Analysis of Variance indicated that no significant difference existed (F = 3.227) between portable and permanent classrooms in student attitude after controlling the effect of student race, socioeconomic status, and ITBS scores. (see Table 3)

Table 3
Univariate Analysis of Variance - Student Attitude

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	3361.554	7	480.222	38.04	.001
Intercept	12.180	1	12.180	.096	.757
Math	10.699	1	10.699	.085	.772
Science	2060.297	1	2060.297	16.319	.000
Lang	2946.427	1	2946.427	23.338	.000
Ss	821.751	1	821.751	6.509	.013
Srace	8.565	1	8.565	.068	.795
Sses	.068	1	.068	.001	.981
Class	406.656	1	406.636	3.221	.077
Error	9216.174	73	126.249		
Total	115120.000	81			
Corrected Total	12577.728	80			

In mathematics achievement, the difference between portable and permanent classrooms was not significant (F = .159) after controlling such factors as race, socioeconomic status, student attitude, and ITBS scores of language, science, and social studies. (see Table 4)

Table 4
Univariate Analysis of Variance - Math

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	520.720	7	74.389	17.229	.000
Intercept	6.645	1	6.645	1.539	.219
Attitude	.366	1	.366	.085	.772
Science	8.044	1	8.044	1.863	.176
Lang	36.058	1	36.058	8.352	.005
Ss	11.450	1	11.450	2.652	.108
Srace	10.387	1	10.387	2.406	.125
Sses	.015	1	.015	.003	.953
Class	.685	1	.685	.159	.691
Error	315.179	73	4.318		
Total	5292048.440	81			
Corrected Total	835.899	80			

Although non-significant differences were found between portable and permanent classrooms in both student attitude and mathematics achievement, greater difference was found between portable and permanent classrooms in student attitude (Significance level = .077; see Table 3) than mathematics achievement (Significance level = .691; see Table 4).

Teachers' survey responses were in qualitative data format and were coded, categorized, and analyzed for patterns of similarities and differences. Special effort was exerted to examine the general patterns of responses. Some of the qualitative analyses are displayed in the following paragraphs.

Teachers were asked if they perceived that students in portable classrooms had more negative attitudes toward their schools than those in permanent classrooms. They responded by indicating that student attitude toward their school should not be affected by the physical environment, whether it was a permanent classroom or a portable classroom. Some of the teachers' comments are quoted as follows:

> "Since we cater to gifted kids, these kids usually have a healthy attitude about themselves, learning, and school." (Teacher F-4)
>
> "It really depends on the teacher's attitude. The kids pick up on the adults' attitudes very easily." (Teacher B-1)

Teachers were asked if they perceived that students in portable classrooms had lower achievement than those in permanent classrooms. All the teachers responded with negative statements. They pronounced with confidence that teachers made the difference in student academic achievement, not the environment. As stated by some of the teachers:

> "I believe that student achievement is determined by the teacher's abilities to teach, not by being in a portable classroom or not being in one." (Teacher D-4)
>
> It's not the setting; it's the teacher who makes the difference." (Teacher G-4)
>
> "Students scored the same as other students in the school on tests." (Teacher H-4)
>
> "We have many less interruptions because we are off the beaten path. It is quieter." (Teacher C-3)

In the issue of using portable classrooms, some teachers have expressed their reservations. Their comments and concerns are quoted for reference in the following:

> "The only difference was the distance to the restroom. So we probably had slightly less time for class because we stopped to use the restroom before each class." (Teacher H-4)
>
> "I think they (students) have to put more effort to maintain performance because of inconvenience of routine tasks." (Teacher A-3)
>
> "I taught in a portable classroom in .....County for a year. The trailer was old with brown paneled interior walls and a very noisy air conditioning." (Teacher H-4)

Most of the teachers' concerns about the use of portable classrooms were focused on their distant location, inconvenient accessibility to needed facilities, and their physical conditions. Teachers worried that extended time needed for students to move from place to place might possibly shorten the students' instructional time. Students might have to work harder to make up for it.

Discussion

As Teacher F stated, the school in this study is a special school for the gifted students. Students in this school have experienced success in their lives and therefore have a healthy attitude about themselves and the school in general. Poor physical conditions of portable classrooms did not do enough damage to downgrade the attitude of these achieving students. This explains the reason why no significant difference was found in student attitude between portable and permanent classrooms in this study. The result is contrary to Chan's previous study (2004) in which gifted students were not involved.

In student achievement, both quantitative and qualitative analyses of data actually point to the same direction that portable classrooms did not negatively impact student achievement. No significant difference was found in students' mathematics achievement between portable and permanent classrooms. The findings of this study confirm those of previous studies by Chan (2003, and 2004) and Krawitz (1987).

It should be noted that even though the teachers made it very clear that they were the ones who made a difference, not the physical environment of classrooms (Teacher C-3, Teacher D-4, Teacher G-4, and Teacher H-4), however, they also indicated their reservations in using portable classrooms. Inconvenient access to some needed facilities is a major drawback in using portable classrooms.

In designing this study, the researcher selected student behavior as one of the dependent variables to be examined. Student behavior was eventually eliminated from the study because the school principal confirmed that there was no noticeable behavioral problem in a gifted school of this nature.

The quasi-experimental design of this study is different from the previous Chan's studies on portable classrooms. Chan's study of teacher attitude in portable classrooms (2003) was basically a survey type of study whereas his study of student attitude, achievement and behavior in portable classrooms (2004) was causal-comparative in nature. This would allow readers to evaluate the results of these studies from different perspectives.

Conclusion

Though no significant difference was found in student attitude and student mathematics achievement between portable and permanent classrooms, the findings of this study are important in two ways: (1) They provide solid evidence to support the findings of previous studies that portable classrooms do not negatively impact student achievement. (2) They indicate that, under certain levels of affective domains, such as motivation and determination, human performance may cease to be impacted by the physical conditions of the environment. Many questions in the use of portable classrooms remain unanswered. In light of the limited available studies in portable classrooms, continuous effort in this research arena is strongly encouraged.

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Appendix 1:

Our School Building Attitude Inventory

A Survey of Students

Is your class in a portable classroom? YES _____ NO _____

Gender: Male ____ Female ____
Race: White _____ Black _____ Other _____

*Instructions: Please circle **Yes** or **No** in each of the following items. When you are circling, refer the items to the **classroom** you are sitting in.*

Yes	No	1. My room is just the right size.
Yes	No	2. My chair is comfortable.
Yes	No	3. I need a better place to keep my books and things at school
Yes	No	4. This room is really a good place to be.
Yes	No	5. The lights help me see better.
Yes	No	6. This room makes it easy for me to study.
Yes	No	7. My friends are happy in this room.
Yes	No	8. I like to go to school in this room.
Yes	No	9. I fee restless in this room.
Yes	No	10. I can get hurt easily in this room.
Yes	No	11. I can read my book easily in this room.
Yes	No	12. I would like to tear this room down.
Yes	No	13. This room is unpleasant.
Yes	No	14. My classroom is bright and cheerful.
Yes	No	15. This room is so noisy.
Yes	No	16. I have a good place to put my books and things at school.
Yes	No	17. I like to play on the school grounds.
Yes	No	18. I go to school in a nice room.
Yes	No	19. This room is quiet.
Yes	No	20. The colors of the walls are bright and pretty.
Yes	No	21. The room is too dark and ugly.
Yes	No	22. I feel uncomfortable in this room.
Yes	No	23. I like to play at this school.
Yes	No	24. This room is too hot.
Yes	No	25. This entire room looks pretty bad.
Yes	No	26. This is the best classroom I have ever stayed.
Yes	No	27. I like to come into this room.
Yes	No	28. This building is beautiful.
Yes	No	29. My classroom is a cozy place.
Yes	No	30. I feel really good in my classroom.
Yes	No	31. I feel sick in this room from time to time.
Yes	No	32. This classroom is very comfortable.
Yes	No	33. My classroom is a clean place.
Yes	No	34. This classroom is friendly and inviting.
Yes	No	35. I get tired and sleepy in this room.
Yes	No	36. This room is too cold.
Yes	No	37. This classroom is not a good place to study.
Yes	No	38. I can hardly see writings on the board.
Yes	No	39. This classroom is great in every way.
Yes	No	40. I feel at home in school.
Yes	No	41. The desks in this room are not comfortable.

Yes No 42. I could learn better if this room is prettier.
Yes No 43. I would like to have more comfortable chairs.
Yes No 44. I don't like my classroom.
Yes No 45. My classroom is too crowded.
Yes No 46. This school is scary sometimes.
Yes No 47. The bathroom is too far away.
Yes No 48. I feel isolated in this room.
Yes No 49. I like this classroom.
Yes No 50. The lights in this room give me headache.
Yes No 51. This room is like a jail.
Yes No 52. I feel really comfortable in this room.
Yes No 53. I can hardly learn anything in this room.
Yes No 54. This room is most comfortable.
Yes No 55. There are more good points than bad points in this classroom.

Appendix 2:

Teachers' Perception of the Impact of Portable Classroom on Student Attitude and Performance.

Are you presently teaching in a portable classroom? (Please circle) YES NO

Years of teaching experiences _____ Gender: Male____ Female____

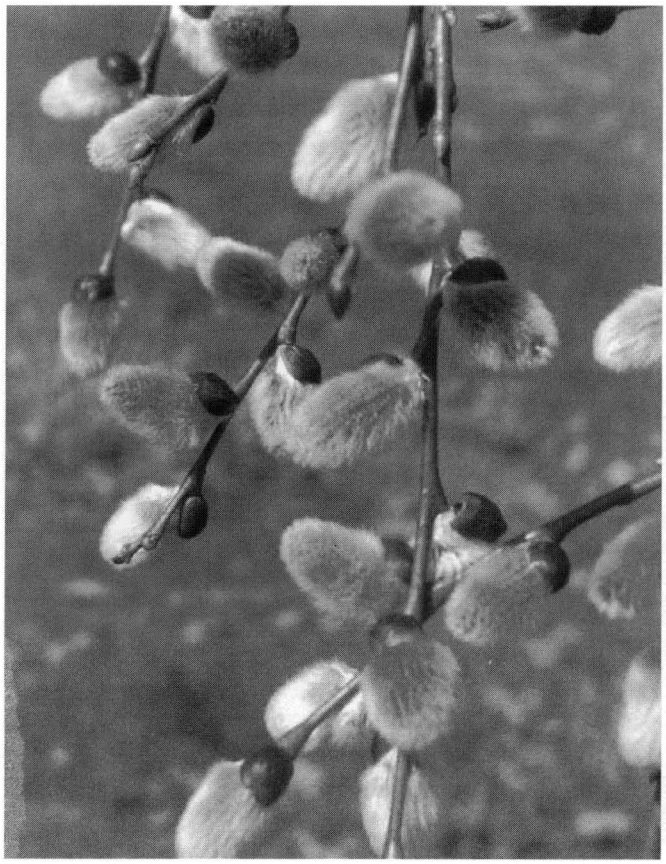
Highest degree earned: Doctoral ___ Specialist ___ Master's ___ Bachelor's ____

Please respond to the following questions the way you perceive:

1. Do you perceive that students housed in portable classrooms have more negative attitudes toward their schools than those housed in permanent classrooms? Why? Please elaborate your answer.

2. Do you perceive that students housed in portable classrooms have poorer academic performance than those housed in permanent classrooms? Why? Please elaborate your answer.

3. Other comments, examples, or experiences:



Twenty-First Century "Catch 22"

Instructor Comments in Asynchronous Web-Based Courses

Scott Fredrickson, Ken Nelson,
Robert J. Walden and Patricia Hoehner

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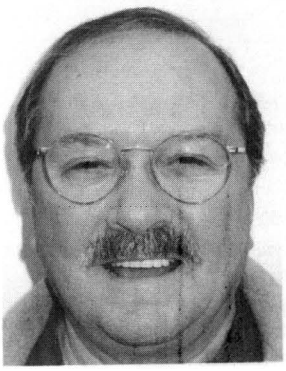

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Abstract

Using two datasets consisting of 732 graduate students in 20 web-based classes and two subject areas, instructor postings and student responses were analyzed to determine if instructor postings reduced student responses. This study determined there was an extremely high positive correlation between instructor postings in discussion forums and student postings in those forums.

Introduction

The emergence of the Internet has not only impacted education, but has caught the attention of both advocates and critics of web-based classes. Numerous studies have been conducted to determine if online classes are as effective as the traditional face-to-face classes, and, more importantly, how valuable is interaction to the success of the learning experience.

Critics often liken online classes to an assemble line approach to teaching. Criticisms range from the lack of nonverbal clues that could lead to misunderstandings to the creation of an environment that allows students to simple "lurk in the background" passively reading discussions without participating (Peters, 1993).

In their study, Smith, Ferguson and Caris (2001) interviewed 21 instructors who taught both in the distance and face-to-face format. Consensus is that the lack of both nonverbal clues and the physical presence of fellow classmates is not a deterrent, but an encouragement for the usually shy student in a

face-to-face class to participate online. The level of interaction is broadly supported according to research conducted by Feedback Research "Most people considering online education believe the quality of online education is better than taking classes in an actual classroom setting" (Online Education, 2005, p. 1).

When the authors began teaching web-based courses many years ago, it was their belief that when the instructor commented in a discussion thread the students perceived that comment as the definitive response and the discussions ceased. One of the authors and several other colleagues were so concerned about the apparent interruption of the discussions that they stopped commenting publicly in the discussion forums, and would only respond to students via email to prevent the termination of the discussions. However, that led to the instructors having to make the same response numerous times to different students. It also seemed that students' responses nevertheless diminished over time as the instructor failed to respond to comments over the duration of the course. At best, it was a bewildering dichotomy.

Why should instructors be concerned about the lack of online discussion in web-based courses? Very simply, online discussion is the heart and soul of a web-based class. Although PowerPoint presentations, readings, links to external web sites, video and audio clips, and other such instructional media can be included in web-based courses, most of the instructor guided student learning takes place in the discussion boards.

In a study of critical thinking Burbach, Matkin, and Fritz (2004) concluded that courses which utilized active learning strategies did improve critical thinking skills" (p. 489). According to a study by Christopher, Thomas, and Tallent-Runnel, students involved with online discussion boards used higher levels of thinking skills. In agreement, Harkavy and Blank (2003) noted that "the best learning takes place when (students) have voice, are able to question, are actively involved, and are encouraged to solve meaningful problems..." (p. 212). From all indications, the more students participate in online discussions, the more they will understand the subject matter and the more they will improve their ability to learn.

Frey, Alman, Barron, and Steffens (2004) noted that "the interactions between the students and the instructor, and the interactions among the students are vital components of successful adult learning experiences" (p. 90). According to Shea, Pickett, and Li (2005, p. 2), "If the benefits associated with online teaching are to be realized--especially those most clearly revered, such as increasing access to higher education--faculty participation and engagement is critical."

In 1999, Beaudin conducted a study to identify techniques used by instructors to keep students on topic. Questionnaires completed by 135 online instructors indicate that keeping online asynchronous discussion on topic is effected by the questioning strategies of the instructor. The design of the question, the provision of guidelines for responses, and the leadership of the instructor to keep the student focused assisted the student in reaching the learning objective.

Not only does student interaction increase the learning in an on-line classroom, it enhances the community building that the instructor should be developing. According to several studies (Choi, 1999; Park & Kin, 2000)) student-to-student and student/faculty communication in the discussion boards are the major community development tool for online courses. While Rovai (2001) noted that "...on-line instructors can create virtual learning environments that promote a sense of classroom community" (p. 45). In 2002, Brown (p. 9) states, "....building community is a key ingredient for successful teaching and learning.... The community leader creates a friendly environment, cheers strong contributions, and nudges reluctant contributors." In addition, Rovai found that "moderate and positive relationships were found between numbers of messages posted and classroom community ..." (p. 40). Frey, Alman, Barron, and Steffens (2004) noted that students became more familiar with each other "...better than in traditional courses" (p. 90).

As in a traditional classroom setting, students follow the instructor's expectations for participation by the instructor's behavior. When the instructor rarely communicates with the students, they are less inclined to pose questions even indirectly to the instructor. In an empirical study relating course design to factors in 73 asynchronous online courses to student perceptions of them, Swan, Shea, Fredrickson, Pickett, Pelz & Maler (2002) found that the greater the percentage of course grades that were based on discussions, the more satisfied students were with their courses, the more they thought they learned from them, and the more interaction they thought they had with both their instructors and their classmates.

In a distance education report ("Instructional Interaction," 2004), the author discussed a study conducted at the University of Massachusetts that indicated "...the frequency of instructor-to-student interaction in each course was strongly, positively correlated to positive student attitudes about the course" (p. 3). The research indicates that student interaction with the instructor is beneficial in a variety of ways and since the authors' personal feelings were that instructor comments in the discussion board in online classes decreased student interactions, a resolution needed to found.

Research Problem

Instructor comments posted in the online discussion forums, decrease student participation in those discussion threads. This hypothesis was based on instructor perceptions after teaching web-based classes for over seven years. It was strictly anecdotal evidence, but it was developed based on the authors' perceptions that instructor postings inhibited student responses on the discussion board.

Method

Twenty online classes were evaluated with a total of 732 graduate students in either educational administration or in instructional technology. Fifteen classes were taught by one instructor and five by another over a four year period. The classes were segregated by instructors for analysis purposes because of the different nature of the two types of classes, the different teaching styles of the two instructors, and a belief that clearer results would be obtained if the datasets were kept separate. A frequency count of the number of instructor comments and the number of student responses and comments were tallied for each class. The total number of instructor postings was compared to the total number of student postings within the respective datasets. The datasets were used to determine if there was a correlation between the instructors' comments and the students' comments. Paired t Tests were conducted using the datasets. The expected result was a negative correlation or, at best, perhaps no correlation would be apparent at all.

Results

The hypothesis was not supported. In fact, the results showed an extremely positive correlation between instructor comments and student responses in both sets of classes. The Pearsons R coefficient was extremely positive. For the educational administration dataset of five classes, the coefficient was .9822 with a p value of 0.01. For the 15 instructional technology classes dataset, the coefficient was .8880 with a p value of 0.001. Figure 1 represents the educational administration dataset and Figure 2 is the instructional technology dataset. Both the figures show that increasing the instructor's postings of comments and questions will precipitate more numerous posting of comments by the students.

Figure 1

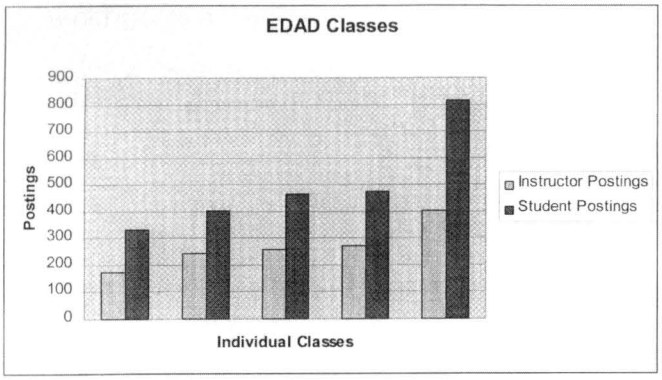
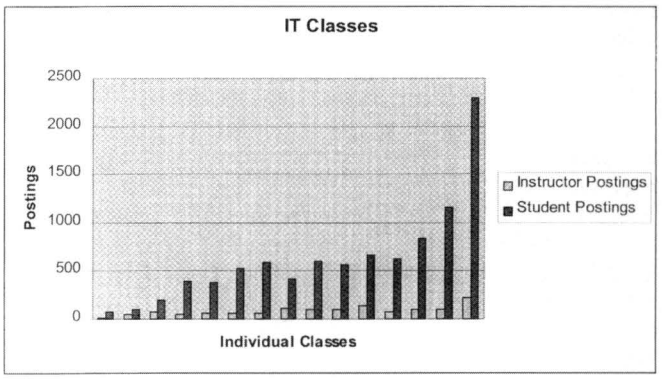


Figure 2



Discussion

It is obvious that the authors' perceptions and the results of this study are significantly different. Perhaps the instructors' perceptions were developed in the first online class or two that were taught. Due to the newness of the technology, the inexperience with online learning on the part of the students and instructors, and the change from satellite delivery of classes to web-based delivery for the instructors all tended to reinforce that opinion. However, after seven years of online instruction, the students and the instructors have become more proficient in that environment. In any event, these results indicate that the instructors' erroneous opinions should be changed and they should be posting more comments if they want their students to become more engaged with online learning and obtaining its associated benefits. As the cited research above indicated, students need to be engaged, active participants in their learning to develop higher levels of thinking and to develop a better sense of community, both of which allow students to learn more and gain a broader understanding of the instruction.

In the analysis of the data, no distinction was made between content postings, community building postings, or simply class "housekeeping" postings. Instructor postings were also not separated into questions posed to the class as a group or in response to question by a student or a group of students. Postings were simply tallied. In the future, those distinctions should be taken into account and analyzed. Student postings were also not classified into student-to-instructor postings, student-to-student postings, or student responding to student/instructor postings. Instructor/student emails and telephone conversations were also not included. Those classifications should be examined also.

Although the classifications of postings were not detailed, they still provide a valuable insight into the workings of a web-based class. Instructors need to plan their postings to facilitate their classes and they should not worry about stopping student comments because the instructor merely posts a comment.

Conclusion

There is a direct, strong, and positive correlation between instructor comments on the discussion

board and student responses in online classes. Other research indicates that engaged, active participation of students improves their learning and retention of the material. Therefore, online instructors need to increase the number of postings in discussion forums to improve that participation by students. Postings should be a comprehensive and a thorough part of an online class. In their study comparing traditionally delivered instruction to online instruction, Ryan, Carlton, and Ali (1999) concluded that "interactive communication must be built into the process. Faculty need to be creative in developing an environment for participation, interaction, and socialization" (p. 275). Instructors cannot be "interactive" if they are concerned about stifling the conversations by posting their comments. The effectiveness of online instruction will be reduced if instructors are overly concerned about the effect of their postings on student participation. The results of this study indicate instructors should post their comments and focus on the instruction to increase student participation in the class.

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What is a weed? A plant whose virtues have not yet been discovered.

– Ralph Waldo Emerson

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